

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### HERE AND THERE AMONG THE HIGH SCHOOLS

The nine items of practice regarded as sufficiently innovating to be described briefly below are from widely scattered sources—three from the far western states, Colorado, Wyoming, and California; one from an eastern state, New York; two from the Midwest, Illinois and Iowa; two from the South, North Carolina and Alabama; and one from the District of Columbia.

*Creative writing in a junior high school.*—The Skinner Junior High School of Denver, Colorado, of which Miss Emma M. Brown is principal, has classes in creative writing. At the time report was made to the *School Review*, there were two such classes of "extremely bright" pupils, one in Grade VIII A and the other in VIII B, which were being taught by Mrs. Ruth K. Funk. Mrs. Funk has had the same pupils since they entered the school in Grade VII B and expects to continue with them through Grade IX A. For these classes the entire course is adapted from the standpoint of creative writing. Mrs. Funk has provided a few examples of her procedures in teaching these groups.

The literature studied in Grade VII A included a book of myths and folklore of different lands. After the book had been read, the structure and the purpose of the myth were discussed, and each pu-

pil then wrote an original myth to explain some custom or tradition of the school. In Grade VII B the pupils read dramatized versions of *Ivanhoe* and *A Christmas Carol*. Each pupil then wrote a parody on one or the other of these selections. The best of the parodies were selected, the best features of all combined, and the composite versions presented at an assembly program. In these versions Scrooge was a cruel teacher whose heart was softened by the Christmas spirit, and *Ivanhoe* up-to-date dealt with gangsters and G-men. Whenever poetry is read, pupils immediately undertake to write some. The direction to them is not merely to "write a poem" but is specific enough to avoid effusions on spring or the first snowfall and at the same time general enough to place no curb on originality. After the reading of several historical narrative poems, correlation was made with social science, and each pupil wrote a poem dramatizing some incident in history which had thrilled him. Mrs. Funk says that a few of these historical poems have been good but that "most of them were very bad," and she finds that the content of children's work must be simple if the style is not to suffer.

Even punctuation and technical grammar are taught through the approach of creative writing. For instance, passages of dialogue provide drill in the use of quotation marks, while plot outlines or bits of characterization and setting provide drill in sentence structure, capitalization, and various kinds of punctuation. Grammatical constructions are emphasized in articles for the school paper. For example, pupils are asked to write a lead beginning with a phrase, a noun clause, or an infinitive. No great amount of time is allowed for drill on fundamentals, as Mrs. Funk has found by testing that these bright pupils do not require so much drill as would groups not so bright.

These pupils are also frequently asked to write for activities not directly connected with their class work. While the Community Chest drive was being carried on and while Christmas baskets for the poor were being filled, the creative-writing groups wrote "pep" verses for daily bulletins. At the time of report to the *School Review*, the two classes were engaged in writing an inauguration ceremony for Skinner's student council.

Mrs. Funk teaches also an elective class of Grade IX in journalism

and short-story writing. The work of this class is concentrated on techniques in these types of writing with only such attention to mechanics as is "absolutely necessary."

A "*Presidents Club*" puts out a guide to club activity.—In the Evander Childs High School of New York City, of which Hymen Alpern is principal, pupil heads of clubs are organized into a Presidents Club. Mrs. Grace Esternaux is faculty adviser of this group. A new project of the Presidents Club is the *Club Digest*, the first number of which was published last November 9. The aim of the *Digest* is stated to be "to acquaint the parents and students of our school with the many good opportunities that are open to all our students . . . for their participation in extra-curriculum activities." Under the heading of "Join a Club" are listed for each period in the school day the organizations meeting during that period, statements of the purposes and activities of the organizations, the days and the places of meetings, names of faculty advisers, and names of presidents.

*Pupil members of a parent-teachers' association.*—From Mrs. Julia Wharton Groves, principal of the Boyden High School of Salisbury, North Carolina, has come a brief description of a plan, followed there since 1929, of having pupil membership in the parent-teachers' association. At that time the organization was changed to a "P.-T.-S.A." The student council of the school appoints a representative to serve on each of the committees of the organization. The experiment has proved successful in stimulating interest on the part of the pupil to see that his or her parent becomes more active in the organization. Concrete results of the co-operative membership are a set of new uniforms for the school band and assurance of a new building for music and industrial arts.

*Systematizing home-room guidance concerning the subjects of study.*—James E. Blue, principal of the senior high school of Rockford, Illinois, has had prepared and has distributed for use by home-room teachers a series of mimeographed bulletins dealing with each of the subject fields represented in the offering of the school. The use of the bulletins is suggested by the content, but at the opening of each bulletin the request is made that the home-room teachers discuss the bulletins with the pupils. Each bulletin considers the objectives, or

purposes, of the field, lists the courses offered in it, and describes each course. Materials of the sort should be helpful to pupils in deciding on the electives in their curriculums. The school distributes also a printed *Elective Bulletin* devised to inform pupils concerning the requirements and offerings of the school and to suggest curriculum patterns in relation to pupils' plans. This bulletin includes a table of requirements for admission to the various schools and curriculums of the University of Illinois.

*Follow-up studies of high-school graduates.*—While by no means a novelty, painstaking follow-up studies of high-school graduates are still infrequent enough to deserve mention as innovations. From two schools word has come recently that work on such follow-up studies is in progress. One of these schools is the Hot Springs County High School, Thermopolis, Wyoming, of which E. J. Bush is superintendent. The school enrolls about three hundred pupils. The follow-up is continuous and involves recording information whenever it emerges in newspapers, contacts of members of the staff, reports from higher institutions, etc. No questionnaire is used. The effectiveness and the completeness of the plan are shown in the fact that, when an occupational survey of graduates since 1931 was made recently, only 14 of 324 graduates, or 4.3 per cent, were classified as "status unknown."

The other school is the senior high school of Creston, Iowa, of which J. H. Trefz is principal. In this school, work is under way on a directory of alumni. Vocational status is being stressed, with the hope that the information will be helpful in guidance of present and future student bodies.

*Panel discussions in the high school.*—The Woodrow Wilson High School of Washington, D.C., of which Norman J. Nelson is principal, is a school which did so well with panel discussions at their inception that the plan has been continued. From materials descriptive of the panels for the current school year, sent us by Miss Estelle S. Phillips, assistant principal, we note that ten panels are being arranged, each with faculty advisers. Among the subjects to be discussed are the following: "Do You Want Socialized Medicine in the United States?" "The British and American Ways in Secondary Educa-



tion," "Public versus Private Ownership of the Munitions Industries," "What Is the Value of the College Sports Programs?"

*An oral newspaper.*—The Jefferson County High School of Tarrant, Alabama, comes forward with a school newspaper which cannot be read, because it is presented orally. From a press description of the project, sent us by William J. Baird, principal, we learn that the newspaper is called the "Wildcat Jabba" and that it is issued in the school's auditorium on alternate Fridays by pupils under the direction of J. Burns King, teacher of mathematics. It consists of news stories, sports, society, editorials, and two voluble "gossip columns." Mention is made of the project as a "solution to the depression dearth of a printed school paper."

*A course in radio speech.*—The department of oral English of the high school of Alhambra, California, offers a course in radio speech, of which Miss Helen E. Kemper is the teacher. Following is quoted a partial description of the course submitted by H. M. Werre, principal.

Emphasis is given to everyday speech as the type of speech needed for radio. The radio serves as an excellent motivation for teaching and attaining pleasing voice quality, distinct enunciation, improved pronunciation, and intelligent oral reading.

For class work the public-address system is used. Pupils arrange and produce thirty-minute practice programs which consist of several short broadcasts three or four minutes in length, such as news comments, interviews, original skits, talks, or adaptations. The adaptation may be an arrangement of a short story or a scene from a play rewritten with sound effects so that it will be suitable for an auditory audience. For each of these thirty-minute programs one pupil acts as announcer.

The work of the course is given further motivation by the fact that, through the courtesy of a sponsored radio program, three or four of the best pupils are given actual opportunities every two weeks to broadcast over a Los Angeles station. The scripts for these programs are in the form of simple conversations about school activities, and small groups of pupils meet with the teacher to write them. When the programs are broadcast, the pupils are introduced as members of a radio speech class who are endeavoring to learn the technique of speech appropriate for radio broadcasts.

## A COMPILATION OF INNOVATIONS

We infer from frequent volunteered comments and much unsolicited commendatory correspondence that many readers follow regularly our feature "Here and There among the High Schools." These readers will be interested in a recent compilation of innovations made under the direction of Professor J. G. Umstattd, of Wayne University, Detroit. Students in his course, "Introduction to Secondary Education," as given in Wayne University during the second semester of 1936-37, made the compilation subsequently to conferences of individual students in the course with principals of secondary schools in the Detroit system and in neighboring districts. In it are described 140 practices, classified under six general headings which disclose, in Professor Umstattd's opinion, as many definite trends. Evidence of the six trends is borne by provisions intended (1) to recognize and accommodate individual differences among pupils, (2) to provide wholesome use of leisure time and to develop abiding leisure-time interests, (3) to give experience in community service outside the school, (4) to give experience in service to associates and to the school, (5) to extend the school offering beyond its traditional limits, and (6) to vivify learning.

Illustrative of titles assigned in the compilation to the innovations are "Descriptive Chemistry and Physics," "Mathematics Material for 'Slow Groups,'" "Study Hall for Maladjusted Pupils and Others," "Cooking for Boys," "Painting of Murals," "Special Study of Detroit and Her Landmarks," "Care for the Undernourished [in school]," "Student Newsreel," "Aeronautical Curriculum," "Latin-American History," "Symphonic Choir," "Career Books," "Family and Child-Life Course," "The Little Playhouse," and "Verse-speaking Choir."

An assemblage of this type can be made to serve the same purpose as our feature "Here and There," which provides brief descriptions of innovations to be considered by persons in charge of secondary schools from the standpoint of local adoption or adaptation. The regular follower of our feature will find in this compilation by Professor Umstattd a few innovations previously described in our pages. The compilation has been reproduced in a mimeographed document of almost two hundred pages and is entitled "Vitalizing the Experi-

ence of Secondary-School Students in Detroit and Nearby Communities." Copies may be secured for thirty-five cents, and orders should be placed with the Department of Statistics and Publications, Board of Education, Detroit, Michigan.

#### DISCUSSION AS AN IMPORTANT FORM OF SPEECH

In the January *News Letter* published at the Ohio State University, I. Keith Tyler, under the caption "Co-operative Thinking," considers the development in pupils of discussion as a speech form. The treatment takes into account the possibilities of developing ability in discussion, compares discussion with certain other forms of speech, and lists conditions necessary for good discussion. The importance of ability in discussion in a democracy prompts us to quote the author's statement with only minor omissions.

Reading and talking still take up the greatest share of the school day in most classrooms. Techniques of reading are constantly being studied and improved; the techniques of talking within the classroom itself are still much neglected. To be sure, in language and English classes much attention is now being given to the cultivation of good speech habits on the part of children, but stress is seldom placed upon speech itself as a tool of education in the social studies, in health, in science, and in the other school subjects. Teachers are discovering the educational usefulness of radio, motion pictures, and current reading materials, but the effectiveness of such new devices is dependent very largely upon the type of discussion which precedes and follows their use. Discussion as an important speech form needs intensive cultivation in most schoolrooms.

Skill in stimulating and leading pupil discussion is one of the most important requirements of the good teacher, and yet I am continually depressed with the realization that few of us have perfected this skill. In the last three years I have conducted a considerable number of discussions with boys and girls in connection with the work in radio and motion pictures. Frequently teachers have told me that what impressed them most about these discussions was not so much the importance of the new media of communication but rather the simple fact that children and young people were able to carry on a high level of intelligent discussion.

Almost anyone can become a good discussion leader if he takes the trouble to acquire the necessary skills. Of course many teachers possess the art already and are constantly carrying on helpful and stimulating discussions in their classrooms; but I venture to say that a good share of the talking that goes on in most schoolrooms is still directly between the teacher and the individual pupil—question-and-answer recitation. This is probably an evidence that whatever we may say in talking about education, most of us still accept in practice the

notion that the teacher is the source of the "right answers" and that the pupils need to be questioned in order to discover how closely they can express the "truth"; that is, what the teacher thinks.

The prime necessity for good discussion is the conviction that each participant has something to contribute and something to learn. We should expect the ideas and concepts of each member of the group, including the teacher, to be shifted or altered as a result of the contributions of the group. This implies immediately that all participants must be listening as well as talking. Vigorous thinking stimulated by each contribution should be going on, and discussion should represent the products of this mental activity.

Good discussion is much like good conversation; there is a development of ideas from one speaker to the next. Poor conversation and poor discussion, on the other hand, are frequently characterized by the inattention of everyone but the speaker. Each is so anxious to present his peculiar convictions and ideas that he does not hear what is being said. He is waiting impatiently for others to stop speaking so that he can begin.

Discussion, again, may be contrasted with the debate as a form of expression. Debaters take a definite stand with regard to an issue and attempt to present only the data favorable to that point of view. In a discussion, on the other hand, the approach is always that whatever views are held are tentative. Boys and girls should approach discussion with the idea and the expectancy that their views will become modified. They should be looking eagerly for new evidence and new data which may cause a shift in whatever convictions they may hold. They are looking for solutions which are consistent with all pertinent facts. They are not precommitted to a viewpoint.

What are the conditions necessary in securing good discussion? First, the problem to be discussed must be one which is felt to be significant by the participants. It must have some vital relationship to their interests and their lives. Sixth-grade children might discuss with great insight the relationship of community planning of playground facilities to the welfare of boys and girls but have difficulty in discussing the Dred Scott decision.

Second, questions for discussion should be controversial. Questions of fact or problems for which adequate solutions have already been worked out do not lend themselves to meaningful and realistic discussion. Thus, you cannot discuss what the rainfall was in Ohio last year, but you can discuss methods for improving housing in your community.

Third, students should be encouraged to react to each other's contributions, to ask questions of each other, and to speak in terms of what has already been said.

Fourth, the leader and group members should learn the techniques of critical thinking and apply them in discussion. This implies looking for hidden assumptions, recognizing fallacious logic, and the like.

Fifth, it should be assumed by teacher and pupils that the contribution of each member is an expression of his personality and therefore of great impor-

tance to him. A serious expression of opinion, no matter how irrelevant, should never be treated lightly. I have heard young people make the most amazing and self-revealing statements in discussion because they knew that the group and the leader would respect that contribution as being honest and important. A lack of understanding, particularly on the part of the teacher, can do more to freeze discussion than anything I know.

In connection with the statement Tyler mentions a new booklet, *High-School Students Talk It Over*, by him and pupils of the University School of the Ohio State University, which is devoted to a verbatim record of five discussions about war, movies, radio, the high school, and parents. Although he insists with appropriate modesty that the content is "by no means a perfect representation" of the techniques under consideration, it is at least an actual sample of the high level of discussion which can be obtained from secondary-school pupils. A copy of the booklet may be secured for twenty-five cents at the University Bookstore, Ohio State University, Columbus, Ohio.

#### RADIO EXPERIMENTS WITH ADULT EDUCATION

To all appearances there is mounting dissatisfaction among intelligent persons with the administration of radio in this country. Here is an agency magnificent in its promise for consideration of public affairs, for education, and for entertainment, one that could hardly have been improved upon, if it had been made to order, in its potential significance for a democratic society. After long years of experience under present auspices, it still falls sadly short of its possibilities. The word "tripe" is typically used to characterize current programs, and listeners increasingly object to the nauseous advertising accompanying the broadcasts. The question is being seriously raised in many quarters, among persons with courage enough to raise it, whether under motives of private profit radio can ever serve our society as it should. In view of the natural classification of radio with public utilities, this questioning more and more turns toward the feasibility and the desirability of public ownership and operation.

In the situation persons interested in having radio serve at its optimum should watch closely the experiment in adult education recently announced by the Columbia Broadcasting System. This organization has formed an Adult Education Board, "composed of

educators and publicists representative of the nation as a whole," with Professor Lyman Bryson, of Teachers College, Columbia University, as chairman, under guidance of which the broadcasting system is launching early in 1938 a series of educational programs in evening hours definitely reserved for that purpose. In the words of the announcement, "Columbia has formed this board in the belief that a more organized effort should be made to supplement existing program schedules with planned, formal education for men and women and that such programs can best be developed by a democratically constituted, authoritative, professional group. . . ."

The new board held its first meeting January 17 and, according to the following item appearing in the *New York Sun* later in the same week, went to work promptly at making proposals for programs.

Wasting no time in setting into motion its plan to enlarge, modernize, and popularize educational features, the Adult Education Board of the Columbia System convened for the first time last Monday under the chairmanship of Professor Lyman Bryson, of Teachers College.

The board reviewed all educational activities in radio since 1930 and outlined an elaborate program in the field of social education.

Three recommendations were presented to the Columbia System as a result of the meeting. The board recommended a series of half-hour evening programs dramatizing the processes of learning. This feature would take the form of a script with permanent characters, including a master teacher and a group of students. Another series will present "America at Work," in which the fields of art, business, industry, research, religion, and music would be treated in dramatic form.

The third recommendation calls for a number of experimental broadcasts designed to win new listeners and appeal to the audience in direct competition with commercial entertainment. To point up the experimental nature of this series, juries of volunteer listeners in schools and civic organizations would be formed to criticize the effectiveness of the trial broadcasts.

In all likelihood portions of the proposed programs will be in operation before this comment sees its way into print, and readers will already have had some opportunity for appraisal. Because of the importance of adult enlightenment to an evolving democratic society, success of the experiment would serve as the beginning of proof that private ownership and operation of radio can be made to serve our need. Acknowledged success at the adult level would soften



and, if these programs are accompanied and followed by other urgent improvements, even silence indefinitely agitation for full socialization of radio broadcasting.

#### MORE COURSES IN ORIENTATION

Evidence accumulates to indicate that secondary schools are increasingly improving "group guidance" through systematizing it by courses in "orientation." Sometimes the systematization is achieved through the less formalized aspects of the school's program, more especially in the home room. More often it is being accomplished in formal courses in orientation. At hand at this writing are descriptions of two such courses, one in Los Angeles County, California, and the other in Nebraska. Following are portions of a statement published in *Sierra Educational News* concerning the former of these two courses. The description was prepared by C. C. Trillingham, assistant superintendent in Los Angeles County.

Numerous teachers and administrators have felt the need for a course experience which would give boys and girls a perspective of the total high-school environment as well as to reveal the necessary adjustments to be made by both the pupil and the school.

The course in orientation seems to be a worth-while possibility for fulfilling that need, whether planned for the seventh grade of the junior high school, the ninth or tenth grade of the senior high school, or for the first year of the junior college. The major purpose of this course is that of guidance—both individual and group. If a genuine desire to guide pupils permeates the philosophy of the teacher who is handling the course, the contents and the mechanics of teaching will largely take care of themselves.

It is true that too many orientation efforts have resulted in the course becoming a virtual dumping ground for curriculum odds and ends and for stray but often worthy units which have found no logical place in the other formal classes of the school. When this is the practice, the outcome is usually a hodgepodge of educational experience completely lacking in continuity of purpose.

Orientation should provide opportunities for pupils to get acquainted with the physical plant, the personnel, the traditions, the activities, and the services of the school. It may also be designed to facilitate appropriate participation in home and community life by giving pupils a better understanding of the benefits, obligations, and potential contributions implied.

The course might well reveal new fields of experience which may point to satisfying vocations and more valuable uses of leisure time. Another objective



should be that of giving pupils the tools of oral and written expression with which to convey their ideas adequately.

The course may be adapted to either the single- or the double-period class organization. When two periods are given to the work, one credit each is usually allowed for social studies and English.

The six units which compose the orientation course developed co-operatively by teachers in a number of Los Angeles County high schools are merely illustrative and are presented as follows: I, "Your School and You"; II, "Good Health and Social Living"; III, "Good Manners and Social Living"; IV, "Good Citizenship and Social Living"; V, "Cultural Living"; and VI, "Vocational Interests and Social Living."

Under each unit, significant problems are stated, with a variety of suggested activities for their consideration. These are intended to be suggestive rather than prescriptive. Some of the ideas presented may be utilized for group activities or discussions, or for individual work. Their differentiation and selection are made according to pupil needs and purposes, and are left to the teacher after she has learned the abilities and needs of her class members.

No single textbook now exists which furnishes satisfactory basic information and reading for this type of course. Each unit should carry its own selected reading list. Ideally, each classroom should have its own collection of books and related reading materials for current use. The main school library should be a constant source of needed information and inspiration. Motion pictures and radio, as well as other audio-visual aids, should contribute to vital pupil experience in this course.

Although certain desirable outcomes should be kept in mind in connection with each unit, it would be wise for teachers to secure pupil participation in setting up appropriate goals and outcomes.

The author of the statement closes by naming some of the secondary schools in Los Angeles County (outside the city of Los Angeles) which have been experimenting with courses in orientation. He indicates that copies of the Los Angeles County Schools monograph, *Ninth Grade Orientation* (No. SS 25), may be obtained by sending ten cents in postage to the Office of the County Superintendent of Schools, 240 South Broadway, Los Angeles.

The course in Nebraska is being made available in planographed form through the University Extension Division of the University of Nebraska. In transmitting information concerning the materials of the course, Director A. A. Reed of the division reports that "over half of the high schools in our state offer a course in orientation and guidance at the ninth-grade level" and that Teachers College of the

University of Nebraska has made it possible for a few persons each year to be trained to teach this new subject. The Extension Division's course is listed under the heading of "Individualized Instruction Material Series," and the purpose of the course is indicated in the following paragraph quoted from the announcement.

The authors of this course believe that it should constitute the first major phase of the high-school guidance program. Around this course, and upon it as a foundation, may readily be built a system of individual records and a meaningful program of personal counseling, including a wise choice of elective subjects and activities. The pupil's high-school career is made more purposeful to him because of the specific attention given to orientation and guidance in his Freshman year, and he is likely to be a much better school citizen.

The materials listed include a "Pupil's Manual," "Teacher's Handbook," and a book of "Tests" for each of the eight units of the course. Persons wishing further information concerning the materials may write to the University Extension Division, University of Nebraska, Lincoln, Nebraska.

Development of new courses is usually accompanied or followed closely by new textbooks in the field. Textbooks for group guidance at the secondary level have, to be sure, been available for some years, but the number has recently experienced notable increments.

#### A CONFERENCE ON BUSINESS AS A SOCIAL INSTITUTION

The Fifth Annual Conference on Business Education, held under the auspices of the School of Business of the University of Chicago, is announced for June 30 and July 1, 1938. The general theme of the conference will be "Business as a Social Institution"—a theme in harmony with those of previous conferences, for example, "Business Education and the Consumer" and "Business Education for Everybody." Following are excerpts from the announcement.

The first day of the conference will be devoted to interpretations and amplifications of the concept, that is, just what "business as a social institution" means to business and industry, to labor, to the layman, and to educators. In the morning session an authority in each of these fields will give evidence of the extent to which the concept, as interpreted, is functioning today; the extent to which it should function in a capitalistic democracy; and the ways in which business, labor, and the layman are striving to meet their respective responsibilities. The afternoon session will be devoted to the relative positions and responsibilities

of government and vocational-training agencies. The respective duties and obligations of government and business will be considered. Ways and means will be suggested for harmonizing the specialized services of different occupational groups, with membership in any one group a matter of individual choice.

The second day will be devoted to the responsibilities of education for the development of integrated experiences for effective participation in business as a social institution. Procedures for overcoming the economic illiteracy and the inadequate social philosophy of teachers will be outlined. Learning situations and classroom procedures at the elementary-school, secondary-school, and college levels constructed for the purpose of developing the concept of business as a social institution will be presented for evaluation.

Each session will be followed by discussion, questions, and comments from those attending the conference. Printed programs including the names of the speakers may be secured on request of the School of Business, University of Chicago. A special luncheon will be served on the campus each day of the conference. Reservations for living quarters may be made in advance with the University of Chicago Housing Bureau.

#### WHO'S WHO IN THIS ISSUE

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## HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS' KNOWLEDGE OF THEIR PUPILS

HARRY LEIGH BAKER

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### PROBLEM OF THE STUDY

Teachers, principals, psychologists, parents, and others concerned with the education of youth have spoken and written much about individual differences and the adaptation of schools to these differences. Before intelligent and effective provision can be made for such differences, teachers and school administrators must know the nature of these differences and the traits and characteristics of the pupils with whom they work.

The primary purpose of this study was to learn the extent of high-school teachers' knowledge of the individual differences of their pupils in the general field of behavior and background. This field includes all of eight more restricted areas which will be outlined. It was also the purpose of the study to determine how much high-school teachers know of individual pupils in each of eight fields of behavior and background.

In addition to these purposes, the study sought to discover the more obvious differences in the activities, the experience, and the training of those teachers who know the most about their pupils and those who know the least. It was not the purpose of this study to discover conclusive relations between the teachers' knowledge of individual differences of pupils and causal factors. In addition, however, to the two purposes which have been stated, the study attempted to discover possible tendencies in the relations of certain factors to teachers' knowledge. The study also indicates techniques by which relations between the teacher's knowledge of the individual differences of his pupils and possible causal factors may be studied.

Two related problems were found basic to the major problem of measuring what teachers know about their pupils: (1) On what

items of information was the teachers' knowledge to be tested? (2) For what teachers, on what pupils, and in what schools were measurements to be made?

Books in educational psychology, guidance literature, and commercially available tests were examined analytically, and a tabulation was made of the individual traits and characteristics which were mentioned. Space does not permit here a detailed description of the procedure in this analysis. The procedure used produced a long list of traits considered significant in understanding the individual differences of pupils. These traits were then classified under eight headings: general ability to learn, physical status and health, personal adjustment, present educational status, general personality, home and educational background, special abilities, and interests and hobbies.

In selecting the teachers to be studied, the investigator aimed to secure as representative a sampling of high-school teachers as practical considerations would permit. Since not more than a year was available in which to complete the investigation and the study of an individual teacher would involve considerable time, only a limited number of teachers could be studied. The estimation indicated that about twenty-five teachers could be studied adequately in the time available.

The schools in which teachers' knowledge of their pupils was to be studied were selected because of traveling accessibility and because of characteristics representative of high schools in general. Five schools were included. The communities in which they were located differed in economic, social, racial, and cultural characteristics. In enrolment the schools ranged from one of the relatively small schools to one of the largest. Table 1 gives the enrolment of each of the five schools in which the study was made. The teachers studied were so selected as to be representative of the various subjects taught in high schools, as well as of schools of different sizes and communities of different types.

Obviously, not all pupils of a teacher could be studied. The physical impossibility of dealing with such a large number of individuals ruled out this consideration. The random sample has been

justified both theoretically<sup>1</sup> and empirically<sup>2</sup> in other fields and therefore was chosen for this study.

A total of 250 pupils are included as samples of the total pupil enrolments of the twenty-seven teachers. Samples for individual teachers range from six to eleven pupils, depending on the total number of pupils enrolled with the teacher. The average total pupil enrolment per teacher is 142; the average sample per teacher is 9.25. In all cases the sample includes 5 per cent or more of the teacher's total enrolment.

The particular problem of this study may now be stated as the measurement of the knowledge possessed by twenty-seven teachers

TABLE 1  
ENROLMENT OF EACH OF FIVE SCHOOLS  
INVOLVED IN STUDY

School	Enrolment
A.....	255
B.....	903
C.....	522
D.....	5,400
E.....	423

about 250 of their pupils in the eight areas of pupil behavior and background which were outlined earlier in this article. The teachers' knowledge of the 250 pupils was measured in the eight areas collectively and in each of the eight areas separately. The knowledge of pupils possessed by the twenty-seven teachers as a group was measured in order to learn something of what teachers in general probably know about their pupils. The knowledge of pupils possessed by each of the twenty-seven teachers was measured in order to learn something of how teachers vary in their knowledge of pupils. In addition, an attempt was made to learn why teachers vary in knowledge of their pupils.

<sup>1</sup> G. Udny Yule, *An Introduction to the Theory of Statistics*, pp. 254-56. London: Charles Griffin & Co., Ltd., 1922.

<sup>2</sup> Ben D. Wood, "The Reliability of Prediction of Proportions on the Basis of Random Sampling," *Journal of Educational Research*, IV (December, 1921), 390-95.



## PROCEDURE

*Method of securing information.*—A general question blank was devised to gather information about high-school pupils for as many as possible of the items which had been determined by the procedure described. Use was made of school records for any items for which facts were available. Information was secured from the records for all the items under health and physical status and general mental ability.

The pupils studied were classified by the test records of general intelligence into five groups: "dull," pupils with intelligence quotients of 90 or below; "below average," pupils with intelligence quotients between 91 and 100; "average," pupils with intelligence quotients between 101 and 110; "above average," pupils with intelligence quotients between 111 and 120; "superior," pupils with intelligence quotients above 120. Ability standards as given by Pintner<sup>1</sup> and Symonds<sup>2</sup> formed the basis for this classification.

*Information secured from pupils.*—The field of "Special abilities" was covered by thirty-two questions asked in a blank submitted to the pupil. The questions were so worded as to increase the objectivity of the answers, that is, to require reference to actual performance as evidence of an ability.

"Home and educational background" was covered by the Sims Score Card for Socio-economic Status plus ten questions added by the investigator. These ten questions covered subjects in which the pupil had done his best work, his poorest work, and the subjects in which he had failed or had received honor marks during the previous year. Information with regard to type of community, states, and countries in which the pupil had lived and with regard to provision of regular hours for home study was also secured.

"Present educational status and learning difficulties" were surveyed by twelve questions covering such factors as subjects in which the pupil had received failing or honor marks during the current semester; subjects which he disliked, which he would like to drop,

<sup>1</sup> Rudolph Pintner, *Intelligence Testing*, pp. 274-89. New York: Henry Holt & Co., 1931 (new edition).

<sup>2</sup> Percival M. Symonds, *Ability Standards for Standardized Achievement Tests in the High School*, pp. 73-74. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1927.



or in which he was afraid he would not pass; possible difficulty in reading rate or comprehension, in arithmetic computation, and in written or oral expression; and ability to use the library.

The section devoted to "Interests and hobbies" included seventeen questions covering such items as elective courses, school clubs and activities, out-of-school organizations and activities, special hobbies and achievements, reading and recreational interests.

"General personality" was measured by the Bernreuter Personality Inventory. Use was made of the forty items most closely related to school situations and school success.

The Symonds blank<sup>1</sup> was used to measure "Personal adjustment." This blank includes twenty-two characteristic answers of pupils to the question, "What kind of year are you having?" The pupil checks the answer which is representative of his current attitude and double checks the one which he considers most typical.

Data obtained from the pupils by question blanks were so gathered as to assure the sincerity and the frankness of the pupils in their answers. They were asked only questions for which they could give valid answers.

*Information secured from teachers.*—The extent of the teacher's knowledge of the facts gathered about his pupils was ascertained by a question blank. In the case of those questions which were based not on definitely verifiable observation but on the pupil's individual reaction to them, the teacher was instructed to answer the question "exactly as you think the pupil would answer it." Thus the teacher's knowledge of the individual differences of his pupils was measured by an extensive list of questions which he answered as he thought the pupil himself would answer them or in accordance with what the teacher thought was the actual status of the pupil. The teacher answered questions which paralleled those items of information secured from school records or by question blanks.

The teachers of each of the five schools met in a group with the investigator, and each filled out a blank for one pupil. This procedure gave an opportunity for a teacher to clear up any case of ambiguity or lack of clarity in the questions. After this group confer-

<sup>1</sup> Percival M. Symonds, *What Kind of Year Are You Having?* New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1932.

ence each of the teachers was given a blank for each of the pupils of the sampling. These blanks were to be filled out by the teacher in private and at his convenience during the following week. The blanks were then collected by the investigator before he proceeded to gather data from the school records or from the pupils. The teachers' answers, therefore, represented their working knowledge of their pupils and were based solely on information already in their possession. Although examined in detail, none of the blanks filled out by the teachers gave any evidence that any teacher had failed to carry out the instructions to answer the questions only from information already in his possession. Assuming the honesty of the teachers, and also considering the fact that there was no gain to be derived by failure to be honest in carrying out the instructions, the information provided by the teachers may be accepted as a valid measure of their knowledge of the facts which were gathered about their pupils.

*Tabulation of data and scoring of schedules.*—The data gathered showing the teachers' knowledge of their pupils were compared with the facts gathered about their pupils by the use of forms which gave an item-by-item comparison of the two sets of blanks. The use of these forms gave a detailed and a purely objective basis for comparing the teachers' knowledge with the facts which had been gathered.

The procedure used in scoring a teacher on a test section depended on the number of possible responses to the items in that section, the customary subtractions being made to compensate for guessing on items for which only two or three answers were possible.

A teacher's knowledge score for a pupil was the percentage of agreement between the teacher's answers and the facts which had been gathered about his pupils. For example, a teacher whose answers agreed with 45 of the 180 facts gathered about a pupil made a knowledge score of 25 per cent. However, an adjusted number of points was assigned certain sections of the blanks in order that they would be comparable with other sections.

#### FINDINGS

The findings will be presented under four headings: first, what the twenty-seven teachers as a group know about the entire sampling

of pupils on all items of the schedule; second, how individual teachers vary in their knowledge of the pupils studied; third, possible relations indicating why teachers vary in their knowledge scores; and, fourth, brief case studies of the two teachers standing highest in knowledge of their pupils.

*What the twenty-seven teachers as a group know about the entire sampling of pupils on all items of the schedule.*—A total of 49,241 items of information were collected about the sampling of 250 pupils in five schools. The twenty-seven teachers, selected from the five

TABLE 2  
WHAT TWENTY-SEVEN TEACHERS AS A GROUP KNOW ABOUT  
ENTIRE SAMPLING OF PUPILS ON ALL ITEMS OF SCHEDULE

ITEM	POSSIBLE TOTAL SCORE	SCORE OBTAINED BY TEACHERS	
		Total	Percentage of Possible Score
General ability to learn.....	4,120	3,250	78.9
Physical status and health.....	1,209	604	50.0
Personal adjustment.....	5,315	1,576	29.7
Present educational status and learning difficulties.....	2,192	487	22.2
General personality.....	9,914	1,668	16.8
Home and educational background.....	12,421	1,954	15.7
Special abilities.....	6,817	937	13.7
Interests and hobbies.....	7,253	819	11.3
Entire schedule.....	49,241	11,295	22.9

schools and various subject departments as previously described, answered accurately 11,295, or 22.9 per cent, of the total number of facts collected about their pupils. The facts gathered are those which educational psychologists, guidance specialists, and educators consider important in the provision of suitable education for boys and girls.

In Table 2 is presented a summary of the number of total facts gathered for the entire schedule and for each of the eight subsections. It will be observed that the teachers know most about the pupils' general intelligence or ability to learn. On this item they scored 78.9 per cent of the possible total score. That is, the twenty-seven teachers are nearly 80 per cent accurate in rating their pupils as

dull, below average, average, above average, or superior in comparison with the classifications which the pupils received as the result of group intelligence tests. It will be noted in Table 2 that, although the teachers scored highest in their knowledge of the general mental ability of their pupils, they score next to the lowest in their knowledge of special abilities. The score of 13.7 per cent for the latter indicates that the teachers' information about the special abilities of their pupils is approximately a sixth as great as their information about the pupils' general intelligence. The teachers' knowledge of the interests and hobbies of their pupils is at the bottom of the list of the eight groups of pupil characteristics.

The comparative rankings of the teachers' knowledge in the five other subsections of the schedule may be observed in Table 2. It is interesting to note that the teachers are accurate in their knowledge of 50 per cent of the items relating to physical status and health, that they are about 30 per cent accurate in their knowledge of the items referring to personal adjustment and attitude toward school life, and that their knowledge of the facts referring to present educational status is about equal to their knowledge of all items of the schedule. They know only slightly more about the facts related to the general personalities and the home and educational backgrounds of their pupils than they do about the items related to special abilities.

*How individual teachers vary in their knowledge scores.*—Individual knowledge scores for each of the twenty-seven teachers cannot be presented here because of limitations of space. The range extends from a low score of 10.6 per cent to a high score of 42.1 per cent. The mean score is 23.3 per cent; the probable error of the mean is 1.02; the standard deviation of the mean, 7.86; and the probable error of the standard deviation, 1.07. The teacher who knows her pupils best knows nearly twice as much about them as the average teacher, and four times as much as the teacher who knows least about her pupils. Limitations of space do not permit including here the information that was secured on the reliability of the sampling.

*Why teachers vary in their knowledge of pupils.*—Eleven factors which may be significantly related to teachers' knowledge of their pupils were investigated and the results are presented in Table 3.

The figures in the second column are the medians of the top and the bottom groups of pupils, or teachers, when arranged in rank order for each of the eleven factors studied. The top and bottom fourths were used for seven of the factors, but in the case of four factors the data were not adequate for such groupings. Consequently, modified groupings were used for association with pupils in extra-class activities, classroom experience with the teacher previous to the current semester, pupil membership in classes under twenty-five and in classes over thirty-five, and visitation of pupil homes by teachers. The difference between the knowledge scores for the top and the bottom groups is shown for each of the factors. The greater the difference between the median knowledge scores of the teachers in the top and the bottom groups of the factor in question, the greater the probability that there is a relation between the factor and teachers' knowledge of their pupils.

One will notice readily in examining Table 3 what appear to be five very good reasons why teachers know more about some of their pupils than about others, and four very probable reasons. Teachers' association with pupils in extra-class activities, the number of conferences, and the amount of time spent in conference with pupils, associations with pupils in class during previous semesters, and classes of moderate rather than large size stand out strikingly as associated with greater knowledge of pupils. Also, the amount of training in educational subjects, the amount of training in subjects taught, and visitation of pupils' homes appear to be somewhat closely associated with what teachers know about their pupils. The younger teachers who have not yet taught a great many years know more about their pupils than do the older teachers. However, the younger teachers also have more professional and academic training and appear to be characterized by more of the factors associated with greater knowledge of pupils than the teachers of long experience. For those reasons the investigator questions the apparent relation between the greater teaching experience as a separate factor and less knowledge of pupils.

Relations between these factors and teachers' knowledge of their pupils may be considered as likely to hold only for the sections of the schedule covering home and educational background, interests

TABLE 3

MEDIAN SCORES ON KNOWLEDGE OF PUPILS FOR TOP AND BOTTOM GROUPS OF TEACHERS WHEN RANKED ACCORDING TO SUPERIORITY IN ELEVEN FACTORS RELATED TO KNOWLEDGE OF PUPILS\*

Factor	Median of Factor Studied	Median Knowledge Score
1. Extra-class activities:		
Top group (teachers of 26 pupils associated in activities).....	1	29.4
Bottom group (teachers of 221 pupils not associated in activities).....	0	20.6
Difference.....	1	8.8
2. Average number of minutes per pupil in conference:		
Top fourth.....	70	25.5
Bottom fourth.....	7	18.5
Difference.....	63	7.0
3. Number of semesters teachers previously taught pupils:		
Top group (teachers of 46 pupils taught previously).....	2	26.9
Bottom group (teachers of 204 pupils not taught previously).....	0	20.1
Difference.....	2	6.8
4. Average number of conferences per pupil during semester:		
Top fourth.....	3	25.3
Bottom fourth.....	1	18.9
Difference.....	2	6.4
5. Number of pupils in class:		
Top group (teachers of 59 pupils in classes under 25).....	21	24.7
Bottom group (teachers of 49 pupils in classes of more than 35).....	40	19.3
Difference.....	19	5.4
6. Number of years of teaching experience:		
Top fourth.....	24	18.5
Bottom fourth.....	3	22.3
Difference.....	21	- 3.8



TABLE 3—Continued

Factor	Median of Factor Studied	Median Knowledge Score
7. Number of semester hours of credit in educational subjects:		
Top fourth.....	34	23.6
Bottom fourth.....	7	19.8
Difference.....	27	3.8
8. Number of semester hours of credit in subjects taught:		
Top fourth.....	60	27.2
Bottom fourth.....	13	25.1
Difference.....	47	2.1
9. Number of visits to pupils' homes:		
Top group (7 teachers who visited).....	2	24.5
Bottom group (20 teachers who did not visit)...	0	22.7
Difference.....	2	1.8
10. Number of years in present school system:		
Top fourth.....	20	23.6
Bottom fourth.....	2	22.8
Difference.....	18	0.8
11. Number of pupils enrolled in all classes of teacher:		
Top fourth.....	181	24.5
Bottom fourth.....	69	25.3
Difference.....	112	- 0.8

\* This table should be read as follows: The median of the teachers' knowledge scores for twenty-six pupils supervised by them in extra-class activities is 29.4 per cent; for 221 pupils not supervised by the teachers in extra-class activities the median knowledge score is 20.6 per cent. The difference between the median knowledge score for pupils with teachers in extra-class activities and the median knowledge score for pupils not with them in such activities is 8.8.

and hobbies, general personality, personal adjustment, present educational status, and special abilities and not for the sections on health and physical status and general mental ability. The knowledge scores of the twenty-seven teachers on these sections show the following correlations with the scores on the entire schedule: home and educational background, .90; interests and hobbies, .81; general personality, .74; personal adjustment, .73; present educational status, .71; and special abilities, .70. Correlations between the scores



on the sections in the fields of health and physical status and general mental ability are .13 and -.03. Hence it may not be concluded that the six factors which seem to be related to teachers' knowledge on the schedule as a whole are related to their knowledge in the latter two areas.

*Brief case studies of the two teachers standing highest in knowledge of their pupils.*—Teacher I, who ranks highest with accurate knowledge of 42.1 per cent of the facts which were gathered about nine of her 144 pupils, is associated with four of the nine pupils in such extra-class activities as a French club, assembly programs, an international-relations club, and correspondence with foreign students. She has held an average of 4.3 conferences with each of the nine pupils during the semester, with an average total time per pupil in conference of two hours and twenty-one minutes. Three of the nine pupils she has had in class for two semesters previously. She has visited in three of the nine pupils' homes. Her five classes range in size from twenty-three to thirty pupils. She has been granted an A.B. degree, with a diploma in education, and has studied on the college or graduate level in nine different institutions, one of which is in France. Most of her graduate work is in educational subjects. One summer was spent in France studying French.

Teacher II teaches English to 190 pupils in five classes ranging in size from thirty to forty-five pupils. He is adviser of the high-school newspaper and in that capacity has come into frequent association with one of the nine pupils of the study. He plans to hold a conference with each of his pupils once a month and averaged for the semester studied about twenty-eight minutes per pupil in 2.3 conferences for each of the nine pupils. He has had three of the nine in class for two semesters previously, and one for more than two semesters before the current semester. He has not visited in any of the pupils' homes. He holds the A.B. and the M.A. degrees, with about twenty-seven semester hours in educational subjects and about forty-two in English. He is teaching his third year, all in one school.

An interesting factor related to Teacher II's knowledge of his pupils is the fact that he has his pupils, in connection with their English

work, keep daily journals of their activities and interests. The pupils hand in their journals to the teacher about once a week. Teacher II reports that he has learned much about his pupils from their daily journals.

#### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

1. High-school teachers know less than a fourth of the facts about their pupils which educators, guidance specialists, and psychologists consider of importance in the educational treatment of individual children. Should so low a score concern educators? The investigator thinks that it should because the teachers' knowledge was measured against facts which are considered important by prominent workers and thinkers in educational needs of youth.

2. High-school teachers vary greatly in their knowledge of their pupils. Some teachers know at least four times as much as others and probably twice as much as the average. One teacher knew over 42 per cent of the facts selected for study; another knew only slightly more than 10 per cent.

3. The differences in teachers' knowledge of their pupils are not due to accident, they are due to related factors. It is not within the purpose of this study to point out conclusively what these related factors are, but careful examination of the data indicates possible trends which might profitably be investigated intensively by techniques similar to those used in this study.

The data indicate several possible related factors, five of which stand out prominently: (1) teacher association with pupils in extra-class activities, (2) the amount of time given by the teacher to pupil conferences, (3) the teacher's previous class association with the pupils, (4) the number of conferences held by the teacher with individual pupils, and (5) the size of class of which the pupil is a member.

Four other possible related factors stand out as worthy of further investigation, although not so strikingly as the first five. These four are: (1) the total number of years of teaching experience, (2) the total amount of study by the teacher in educational subjects, (3) the total amount of study by the teacher in the subjects taught, and (4) visitation of pupils' homes.

The total number of years of teaching experience in the system and the total pupil enrolment seem not to be significantly related to the teacher's knowledge of the pupils.

4. It is important that the opportunities for teachers to learn significant facts about their pupils be made as favorable as possible and that teachers be encouraged and rewarded in their learning of these facts. This conclusion is based primarily on the three findings mentioned above.

Some of the opportunities which may well be considered of importance in teachers' learning about their pupils are contacts with pupils in extra-class activities, pupil conferences, previous class association with the pupils, assignment of classes of fewer than twenty-five pupils rather than classes of more than thirty-five, and visitation of pupils' homes by the teachers.

Teachers who have a good background of training in educational subjects and in the subjects which they teach are likely to make better use of their opportunities to learn about their pupils than are teachers who have less extensive backgrounds in these respects.

*Implications of findings for high-school administration.*—The findings have certain implications for high-school administration. Teachers should not be criticized for what they do not know about their pupils unless, suitable opportunities and encouragement having been provided for them to know their pupils, they have failed to take advantage of those opportunities and that encouragement. First, the administration should definitely set up the securing of knowledge of their pupils as one of the important goals for teachers. Second, the administration should create as many favorable opportunities as possible for teachers to know their pupils. Several such opportunities have been indicated. One of the most promising of these is association with pupils in extra-class activities. Association in extra-class activities will prove much more profitable in producing knowledge of pupils if it is with those pupils whom the teacher also has in class. Too frequently, even though a teacher has contacts with pupils in extra-class activities, those contacts are with pupils whom he does not have in class.

The provision of suitable places and times for teachers to have conferences with their pupils also give profitable opportunities for

teachers to learn about their pupils. There should be a place and a time in which there are privacy, freedom from distraction, and freedom of the teacher from responsibility for supervision of other pupils. Many schools already provide such opportunities by dismissing the majority of pupils sufficiently early in the afternoon that teachers still have time and energy for a regular daily conference period of thirty to sixty minutes.

A good opportunity for teachers to know their pupils has been lost with the extreme departmentalization and the great increase in size of the modern high school. Teachers seldom have their pupils for more than two semesters and frequently for only one. Whenever possible, high-school administration should make it possible for teachers to have their pupils for more than the usual two semesters.

The opportunities for teachers to know their pupils in extremely large classes, that is, classes of more than thirty-five pupils, are not so good as the opportunities in classes of more moderate size. More than a hundred studies have been conducted on the effect of class size on teaching. These seem to show that there is no appreciable difference in the achievement of large and small classes in what can be measured by objective tests.<sup>1</sup> The present study indicates, however, that the opportunities for teachers to know their pupils are greater in the smaller classes. High-school administration should function in accordance with this conclusion if teachers are to be expected to know pupils individually.

Home visitation is another opportunity which should be provided if teachers are to be intelligent in their personal relations with their pupils. Factors of time, transportation, the number of pupils, and the number of semesters that the pupils are assigned to a teacher bear on the opportunities for home visitation. Competent high-school administration can arrange these factors to contribute opportunities for home visitation of pupils.

One should be somewhat cautious about concluding that the amount of training in professional or academic work contributes proportionally to teachers' knowledge of their pupils. While the present study indicates that teachers who have had more training in

<sup>1</sup> Manley E. Irwin, "Educators Have Not Solved the Class Size Puzzle," *Nation's Schools*, X (December, 1932), 23-36.

professional and academic work know more about their pupils than teachers who have had less training, it may be that common causes lie back of both training and knowledge of pupils. Perhaps the greater amount of energy, enthusiasm, and interest in teaching cause both results. Nevertheless it seems reasonable to expect that adequate training in professional and academic work should contribute to teachers' knowledge of their pupils, and this conclusion is not contradicted by the findings. High-school administrators, in selecting teachers, can be reasonably certain that those who are adequately trained in professional and academic lines will learn more about their pupils than teachers who are poorly trained in those respects.

High-school administration should set up the securing of knowledge of their pupils as an objective for teachers. It should provide such opportunities as those mentioned for teachers to know their pupils. It should then stimulate and direct teachers in those activities which contribute most to intelligent and sympathetic understanding of their individual pupils.

## CONSUMER BUYING IN CALIFORNIA SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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The data reported here include the findings of an extensive study of the methods and practices in use in classes of consumer buying or consumer education in California secondary schools. In December, 1936, a preliminary card was forwarded to 421 principals of secondary schools in California by Ira W. Kibby, chief of the Bureau of Business Education, bearing the signature of Vierling Kersey, then superintendent of public instruction. School officials were asked to indicate on the card their willingness to co-operate in the study, which was to include the gathering of information pertaining to enrolments, placement of subjects, placement of pupils, and teaching personnel in California secondary schools. One section was devoted to consumer education. Of the group approached, 383 principals signified a desire to co-operate in the study. Copies of the inquiry were sent to these 383 principals, 196 of whom returned usable blanks. A number of educators did not return the blanks but replied by letter, explaining that so little was being done in their schools in offering a consumer course that checking was not attempted. However, there was an enthusiastic response on the part of a great many school executives and teachers who were including a buying course in the curriculum or who wished to do so.

The items reported will be given in percentages of the 196 schools co-operating in the study, although not all the principals answered every question. The responses included 79 replies from schools with enrolments of less than 250, 58 from schools with enrolments from 250 to 749, and 59 from schools with enrolments of more than 750. These 196 schools represent about 51 per cent of the 383 high-school officials in the state who signified a desire to co-operate in the study.



The introduction of consumer buying as a separate course in California secondary schools or as an integrated part of other courses had its inception during the period of the depression. First dubbed a fad by many educators, it has gradually grown into a movement and at the present writing, when a post-depression era has set in, indicates the possibility of becoming a continuous and permanent part of the program.

*Opinions of California school officials.*—The first question to receive attention on the check list was, "Do you believe that instruction in consumer buying (consumer education) should be included in the high-school program?" Though the subject has been so recently conceived as a part of the curriculum, all the 196 school officials reporting agreed that the curriculum would be enriched by including it.

How work in consumer buying was to be offered caused some disagreement among the co-operating officials; 65 per cent thought it should be a separate course and 31 per cent indicated that they felt it should be included in other courses. A third of the co-operators thought one semester would be a sufficient length of time to devote to the teaching of consumer buying, while less than a third thought two or more semesters better. The percentages of school officials who wished the course to be elective and those who wished it to be required were almost identical; 41 per cent thought consumer buying should be elective and 40 per cent believed it should be required. Well over a third of the co-operating officials would limit the classes to Juniors and Seniors, slightly more than a fourth expressed the opinion that classes should be open to all pupils, and a tenth thought the course should be limited to Seniors.

Almost 75 per cent of the educators believed consumer buying to be of equal value for rural children and for children in towns and cities. When asked to give the attitude of boards of education, parents, and businessmen toward the teaching of buying courses in the schools, well over a third reported favorable reactions.

The opinions of educators concerning the fields to which the teaching of consumer buying should be limited are of interest. The field of business and that of home arts ranked first and second, re-



spectively. The following fields were ranked in the order named: social studies, science, agriculture, industrial arts, mathematics, and English. As to the specific subjects in each general field, school officials indicated that, in the business or commercial field, general business training would be the appropriate subject; in the home-arts field, foods; in social studies, economics; in agriculture, a first-year course; in industrial arts, automobile mechanics; in science, chemistry; in mathematics, general mathematics; in English, business English.

*Situations in schools in which a separate course is offered.*—It was found that, although 196 co-operating officials believed that a course in consumer buying would enrich the curriculum, but 47 schools (24 per cent) were actually offering a separate course. The report showed that the schools enrolling 250 or more pupils offered more work in separate courses than did those schools with enrolments below 250.

The total of the pupils enrolled in separate courses in consumer buying was reported as 1,342. Of this number, 898 were reported in the following curriculums: college-preparatory, 275; non-college-preparatory, 455; and terminal-vocational, 168. The number of boys enrolled exceeded the enrolment of girls.

Well over three-fourths of the schools made consumer-buying courses elective, and more than a third devoted one semester to the course. However, the report revealed that more than half of the smallest schools (those with enrolments of fewer than 250) devoted two semesters to this instruction. Slightly less than half the schools (47 per cent) have but one class in consumer buying. Twenty-six per cent limit the classes to Juniors and Seniors; less than a fourth leave the classes open to all; and 15 per cent limit the course to Seniors.

As yet few consumer-buying courses are offered for adults; only 5 per cent of the schools reported such work.

While methods of presentation vary from instructor to instructor, the preferred methods reported were, in the order listed: units of instruction prepared by the instructor, field trips, laboratory experiments, material from a textbook, individual reports, class discussion, outside speakers, and lectures.

*Practices when consumer buying is included as a part of one or more other courses in addition to, or in place of, a separate course in consumer buying.*—The home-arts field ranked first, with the commercial field a close second, when consumer buying was included as part of the work in other departments. Social studies, industrial arts, science, agriculture, mathematics, and English were ranked in the order listed.

Courses in foods, clothing, and homemaking offered the largest percentage of consumer-buying units. In the commercial department the most consumer buying was taught in units in general business. In the field of social science more consumer-buying units were absorbed in economics than in other subjects in this field. In industrial arts automobile mechanics and woodwork included the greatest amount of consumer buying. General science and chemistry in the field of science absorbed the most consumer-buying units. First-year agriculture courses in the general field of agriculture, general mathematics in the field of mathematics, and business English in the general field of English were reported as absorbing the largest number of buying units.

*General situations in reporting schools.*—It is gratifying to note that in most of the schools offering work in consumer buying the pupils were reported to have "considerable" interest and that in over 10 per cent of the schools "very great" interest was noted.

More teachers hesitate to teach consumer buying because they are unprepared than for any other single reason. A large percentage of schools reported lack of sufficient material, lack of time on the part of the teachers, and fear of community criticism as some of the most important reasons for hesitation.

*In conclusion.*—It has been shown by this study that consumer buying has been included as a part of the regular high-school program by a number of forward-looking secondary-school officials in California. However, the program has developed in a typically laissez faire fashion in response to varying personal attitudes of the educators, and the percentage of children receiving education in consumer buying varies, therefore, from one area to another and from school to school within an area. The programs vary in like manner;

some pupils are more fortunate in the school district in which they reside than are their neighbors who attend a high school the principal of which claims that such courses have no place in the curriculum and are not the function of the school.

However, the introduction of separate courses in consumer buying in forty-seven secondary schools and the inclusion of consumer-buying instruction in units of other broad fields of the curriculum indicate a change in educational trends. Over and over again in this study it is shown that there is a steady and increasing interest among educators in consumer education as a valuable course for high-school pupils, and it is evident that there must be organization to give direction and steadiness to the educational enterprise.

## USE OF NEWSPAPERS IN SECONDARY SCHOOLS

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Much has been said about the educational influence and the functions of newspapers in a democracy. Authorities on journalism have long maintained that readers set the standard and determine the quality of the public press. This view is not accepted by many educators, but an analysis of the factors of newspaper production indicates that journalism authorities have good grounds for their argument. A newspaper is a close articulation of three branches—news, advertising, and circulation—and without one, none of the others could exist.

An objective of a project sponsored by the National Education Association during the school year 1935-36 was stated as follows: "To further the movement to educate people to become intelligent readers and buyers of the newspaper."<sup>1</sup> The article describing this project resulted in its author's receiving many letters requesting answers to such questions as the following: "Where can information be secured on how to train pupils to be intelligent readers of the newspapers?" "What should the courses in social science and English do to train pupils to be intelligent newspaper readers?" The large number of inquiries which the writer of the *Journal* article received and the comments made in accompanying letters indicated that there was a tremendous interest in the subject but that little activity or experimentation was under way.

### THE NATURE OF THE PRESENT STUDY

In January, 1937, a group of administrators and leaders in secondary education who meet regularly at the University of Chicago made

<sup>1</sup> C. C. Harvey, "Student Leadership," *Journal of the National Education Association*, XXIV (October, 1935), 212.

a study of the use of the newspaper in forty-four senior high schools. The purpose of the study was to discover (1) what use the schools are making of the newspaper in classroom work and (2) what effort is being made by the schools to train pupils to become intelligent readers of newspapers. The study was divided into two parts. The information called for in the first part of the study was secured by circulating an inquiry blank among the pupils of the Sophomore, Junior, and Senior classes in each school. The second part relied on a questionnaire filled out by principals of the schools with the assistance of teachers who were selected to help evaluate the work being done. The schools were distributed geographically as follows: Illinois, 17; Indiana, 8; New York, 4; Pennsylvania, 3; Michigan, 2; and California, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Maryland, Massachusetts, Montana, Utah, Washington, and Wyoming, 1 each.

#### RESULTS

The pupils' questionnaire began with such questions as: "Do you read a daily newspaper?" "How much time do you spend (on the average) each day in newspaper-reading?" The mean of the percentages of boys reporting that they read one newspaper or more each day was 62, and the corresponding figure for girls was 55. Table 1 shows that the greatest percentage of pupils indicated a daily reading period of from fifteen to thirty minutes.

The replies to the request for the plan employed in reading the newspaper indicated that in most schools more than 50 per cent of the pupils read everything bearing on their special interests and more than 30 per cent had no special plan. These "special interests," however, might all be comic strips or movie items, since the returns on this question did not reveal what the pupils' special interests were.

The reasons given by pupils for reading newspapers revealed that there was little teacher guidance. In sixteen schools, for example, the percentage of boys who read newspapers at the instigation of the teacher was zero. On the other hand, a gratifyingly large percentage of the pupils in all the schools read the paper for information. A close second to this reason was the reading of the daily paper for entertainment. Some pupils read "to pass away the time" and others because it is "just a habit."

Pupils were also asked to check the parts of the newspapers that they always or nearly always read. The means of the percentages of

TABLE 1  
DATA REPORTED BY FORTY-FOUR HIGH SCHOOLS ON NEWSPAPER-  
READING OF PUPILS IN GRADES X-XII

ITEM	MEAN OF THE PERCENTAGES IN FORTY-FOUR SCHOOLS	
	Boys	Girls
Amount of time spent daily in reading newspapers:		
15 minutes or less.....	18.4	18.7
15-30 minutes.....	56.5	57.8
30-60 minutes.....	22.1	22.2
1 hour or more.....	4.6	3.5
Plan used in reading daily paper:		
Read items on special interests.....	57.8	57.2
No special plan.....	30.5	33.1
Read front page thoroughly.....	11.8	8.1
Reason for reading daily paper:		
For information.....	62.6	59.2
For entertainment.....	41.7	43.2
Just a habit.....	14.5	16.5
To pass away the time.....	10.7	8.8
To fulfil teacher's requirement.....	2.5	2.8
Parts of the daily paper read always or nearly always:		
Front page.....	80.7	91.5
Motion-picture news.....	61.3	76.8
News items inside.....	54.5	53.6
Editorial page.....	25.0	24.7
Types of news articles liked best:		
Accomplishments in science, aviation, and industry...	46.3	20.7
Activities of young people, such as hobbies and sports.	43.6	51.3
Crime.....	23.3	15.4
Government.....	20.0	19.2
Occupations.....	8.8	5.4
Education.....	7.3	12.1
Gossip.....	4.7	12.9
Religion.....	2.6	2.2
Pupils reporting that they generally believe what they read in newspapers.....	69.1	68.7

pupils who read some of the principal sections of newspapers are shown in Table 1. The editorial page was neglected by the majority



of these high-school pupils, this page having received attention from only a fourth of the boys and girls.

The data obtained on the types of news stories liked best by the pupils were significant. In one case, to select a school at random, 49.9 per cent of the boys and 69.0 per cent of the girls expressed primary interest in stories of crime; 39.2 per cent of the boys and 60.0 per cent of the girls expressed a preference for stories allied to gossip; but the percentage of both boys and girls who preferred religious articles and government stories was zero. In that particular school the greatest interest lay in "Accomplishments in science, aviation, and industry" and in "Activities of young people, such as hobbies and sports." Another school, however, reported that 20.0 per cent of the boys and 29.0 per cent of the girls were interested in religious articles, as well as a large percentage in young people's activities and in education. The data in Table 1 on the types of news articles liked best reflect differences in the interests of boys and girls.

To the question, "Do you generally believe what you read in the newspapers?" replies were for the most part affirmative. It has been said that the results of the latest national election prove that the power of the press is not so persuasive as it once was. Even so, it is significant that in many of the schools 90 per cent of the pupils believe what they read in the newspapers. Any number of newspaper stories could be cited in which the facts have been distorted, and yet Table 1 indicates that a large percentage of the pupils believe what they read. In one school, however, the percentages of credulous pupils ran as low as 29.2 among the boys and 23.8 among the girls. In this school, according to the principal's reply, the newspaper is used regularly in the journalism and the social-science classes with the objective of training pupils "to be intelligent readers and buyers of the newspaper."

The information secured from the principals and teachers in the second part of the study is summarized in Table 2.

The newspapers received regularly by the libraries of the schools in this study were, in the order of frequency: local newspapers, *New York Times*, *Christian Science Monitor*, *Chicago Tribune*, *Chicago Daily News*, *Chicago Herald and Examiner*, and *United States News*.

TABLE 2

QUESTIONNAIRE ON NEWSPAPER-READING SUBMITTED TO PRINCIPALS  
AND TEACHERS OF FORTY-FOUR HIGH SCHOOLS

Question and Answer	Number of Schools
Do certain subjects in your high school have as an objective the training of pupils to be intelligent readers and buyers of the newspaper?	
Yes.....	29
No.....	12
Do you consider the newspaper a wholesome influence on boys and girls of high-school age?	
Yes.....	32
No.....	9
Are the attitudes and ideals which your high school is striving to inculcate in pupils unfavorably influenced by the reading of the press?	
Yes.....	21
No.....	17
Should the high school emphasize training for intelligent reading of the newspaper?	
Yes.....	41
No.....	0
If so, in what courses should such training be given?	
English.....	28
Social science.....	28
English and social science.....	25
Science.....	7
Commercial subjects.....	5
Home economics.....	3
In educating pupils for intelligent reading and use of the newspaper, is it better (1) to devote one or more units in a particular course to an intensive study of the newspaper or (2) to integrate the study of the newspaper with the entire course?	
Alternative 1.....	3
Alternative 2.....	32
Alternatives 1 and 2.....	6
In what departments in your school are newspapers used regularly in classroom work?	
Social science.....	35
English.....	27
Commercial subjects.....	8
Science.....	8
Journalism.....	7
Home economics.....	4

TABLE 2—Continued

Question and Answer	Number of Schools
List the courses of the departments checked above in which the newspaper is used <i>primarily as a source of information</i> in connection with classroom work:	
History.....	19
Civics.....	10
Economics.....	10
Science.....	10
English.....	9
Social science.....	8
Vocational work.....	6
Journalism.....	5
Government.....	4
Sociology.....	3
Law.....	1
List courses in which the primary emphasis is on training in <i>intelligent reading</i> of the newspaper:	
Social science.....	18
English.....	16
Journalism.....	14
Commercial subjects.....	2
Does your school have a course in journalism?	
Yes.....	29
No.....	15
If so, is the chief emphasis in the course on (1) the technical and professional aspects of journalism or (2) the cultural and educational aspects of journalism, including appreciation of the newspaper, intelligent reading, and wise buying?	
Alternative 1.....	10
Alternative 2.....	17
Alternatives 1 and 2.....	2

## CONCLUSION

From the foregoing data it is evident that the newspaper has a place in the high-school curriculum, not only as a source of information, but also as a medium for giving young people an opportunity to think for themselves. It would seem that the time has arrived for a concentrated program for training high-school pupils to exercise some degree of discrimination in the acceptance, the rejection, and the interpretation of what they read in newspapers.

## GUIDANCE AMONG GEORGIA HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS

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Vocational difficulties, reflected in unemployment, and personality maladjustments, reflected through studies of delinquency, are among the factors which have increasingly focused attention on guidance for youth and on the agencies for offering guidance. Since the secondary school is an institution having extensive contact with youth, it is worth while to study the extent to which that institution can and does offer useful guidance.

This article has grown out of information regarding guidance which was obtained in the school year 1935-36 through questionnaires from pupils in the four upper years of eleven high schools for white pupils in Georgia. Vocational interests and guidance were studied in relation to certain facts regarding the backgrounds of the pupils concerned.

*Vocational interest in relation to non-school work.*—Responsibility for a job may serve to make a pupil conscious of the vocational drive of adult life and thus stimulate him to think about vocational possibilities. Vocational anticipations were accordingly studied in relation to work done outside school, and the data are presented in Table 1.

Among the boys, 54.9 per cent reported that they had regular non-school work, compared with 32.5 per cent among the girls. This difference perhaps reflects greater employment opportunity for boys, as well as greater home urge to work. The situation for girls, with respect both to opportunity and to urge, is perhaps different in Georgia from that in some other states because of tradition, the availability of colored female help, and other factors.

The clearest vocational preference was in favor of the professions. A large percentage of boys, however, planned to enter trades, and a significant percentage of girls looked toward clerical

employment. The preference for the professions seems a reflection of vocational prestige, whereas preferences in the trades or in

TABLE 1

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS IN ELEVEN GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS WITH REGULAR NON-SCHOOL WORK AND WITH NO NON-SCHOOL WORK WHO HAD DECIDED ON VARIOUS TYPES OF FUTURE VOCATIONS

FUTURE VOCATIONAL CHOICE	FIRST-YEAR PUPILS		FOURTH-YEAR PUPILS		PUPILS IN ALL GRADES	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Public official (civil service):						
Pupils with work.....	1.2	2.6	.....	.....	0.3	0.8
Pupils with no work.....	2.2	.....	.....	.....	0.7	0.2
Profession:						
Pupils with work.....	33.3	68.3	41.5	75.0	39.7	74.3
Pupils with no work.....	41.7	74.0	53.2	68.2	53.8	70.9
Manager:						
Pupils with work.....	2.2	.....	.....	.....	2.2	.....
Pupils with no work.....	1.1	.....	.....	.....	1.0	0.6
Merchant:						
Pupils with work.....	3.3	.....	3.7	.....	3.9	.....
Pupils with no work.....	3.3	0.6	6.4	0.9	3.0	0.7
Clerical worker:						
Pupils with work.....	8.0	17.7	18.3	25.0	10.8	17.3
Pupils with no work.....	8.8	20.3	8.5	26.2	10.1	21.3
Mechanic or tradesman:						
Pupils with work.....	30.0	3.8	23.1	.....	25.9	1.1
Pupils with no work.....	30.8	3.2	23.4	.....	24.2	2.4
Farmer:						
Pupils with work.....	10.0	.....	7.3	.....	11.1	0.4
Pupils with no work.....	2.2	0.6	.....	.....	1.6	0.2
Skilled laborer:						
Pupils with work.....	7.8	7.6	4.9	.....	5.0	6.1
Pupils with no work.....	8.8	1.2	8.5	4.7	4.6	3.7
Unskilled laborer:						
Pupils with work.....	3.3	.....	1.2	.....	1.1	.....
Pupils with no work.....	1.1	.....	.....	.....	1.0	.....
Total:						
Pupils with work.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Pupils with no work.....	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
No vocation in mind:						
Pupils with work.....	13.5	9.2	8.9	7.1	10.9	8.0
Pupils with no work.....	5.2	4.8	6.0	8.5	8.1	7.2
Number of pupils reporting:						
Pupils with work.....	104	87	90	56	404	288
Pupils with no work.....	96	166	50	117	332	597

clerical fields suggest more attention to probable supply and demand and consequent employment possibilities. The small number of

preferences in the labor fields seems clearly a matter of vocational prestige rather than employment possibilities.

The greater range in vocational choice among boys than among girls reflects a society in which boys are offered a wider vocational range. School and non-school information and pressures, as youths approach more nearly the beginning of vocational careers, probably explain the greater concentration of preferences indicated for Seniors than for Freshmen.

More of the pupils who worked than of those who did not work, especially among the boys, had no vocations in mind. This fact may mean that pupils who worked were not satisfied with their work and were hesitant about vocational decisions or that, because they worked, they had little time to think about future vocations. It may also mean, however, that pupils who worked came from families with high vocational aspirations for the children but with some vocational instability, which resulted in uncertainty of vocational choice among the children. The difference between Freshmen and Seniors, however, suggests that during the high-school years there had been a greater settling influence at work among those who worked than among the others.

*Vocational interest in relation to family life and non-school guidance.*—Home status might be thought to influence the age of vocational choosing or the choice made. Moreover, older children in a family are sometimes thought to feel a keener vocational urge than are younger ones. These factors were studied by considering the father's vocation, size of family, and sibling position.

Of the 871 boys supplying data, 23.5 per cent came from families of one or two children, 34.9 per cent from families of three or four children, and 41.6 per cent from families of five or more children. The corresponding percentages for the 1,071 girls supplying data are 21.5, 37.7, and 40.8. Tabulations concerning positions of siblings within families, not given here, showed no consistent differences resulting from size of family or sibling position so far as consideration relates to the proportions of pupils who had vocations in mind or the proportions who had received guidance from persons other than principals or teachers.

Table 2 shows that, of the 568 boys who had vocations in mind and who supplied data on source of guidance, 394 (69.4 per cent)



had received guidance from persons other than principal or teachers. Of the 303 with no vocations in mind, 191 (63.0 per cent) reported similar guidance. Of the 767 girls with vocations in mind, 498

TABLE 2

PERCENTAGES OF PUPILS IN ELEVEN GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS WHO HAD RECEIVED AND HAD NOT RECEIVED VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE FROM PERSONS OTHER THAN PRINCIPAL OR TEACHER, CLASSIFIED ACCORDING TO FATHER'S OCCUPATION

OCCUPATION OF FATHER AND VOCATIONAL CHOICE OF PUPIL	GUIDANCE RECEIVED		NO GUIDANCE RECEIVED	
	Boys	Girls	Boys	Girls
Public official (civil service):				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	4.0	2.2	2.9	0.8
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	3.6	1.8	.....	0.7
Profession:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	9.9	8.0	12.7	8.2
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	6.3	5.4	13.4	3.5
Manager:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	6.6	7.0	4.0	7.1
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	5.2	6.6	6.3	7.1
Merchant:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	11.9	10.8	9.2	10.0
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	14.7	13.8	13.4	12.8
Clerical worker:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	14.3	15.1	13.2	17.1
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	14.1	17.4	8.0	19.9
Mechanic or tradesman:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	7.1	6.2	4.0	10.0
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	9.4	5.4	7.1	9.9
Farmer:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	19.8	26.7	22.4	22.3
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	23.6	29.3	23.2	26.9
Skilled laborer:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	19.0	17.8	18.9	17.8
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	16.8	11.9	18.8	12.1
Unskilled laborer:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	7.4	6.2	12.7	6.7
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	6.3	8.4	9.8	7.1
Number of pupils reporting:				
Pupils with vocations in mind. ....	394	498	174	269
Pupils with no vocations in mind. ....	191	167	112	141

(64.9 per cent) reported such guidance, whereas, of 308 with no vocations in mind, 167 (54.2 per cent) reported similar guidance. Thus, in the case of each sex the percentage of pupils who reported guidance was larger in the case of pupils with vocations in mind than in the case of those without. This difference may mean that

guidance was important in the pupils' vocational choices, or it may mean only that those already interested in some vocation sought guidance to a greater extent than did the others.

The percentage of farmers' sons who had received guidance and who had vocations in mind (19.8) was smaller than the percentages in all other choice and guidance categories for farmers' children. In the case of children of merchants, the percentages of the pupils of both sexes with vocations in mind were smaller than the percentages of those without. In the case of daughters of mechanics, those who had received guidance were less numerous than those who had not. The daughters of skilled laborers without vocations in mind were less numerous than those who indicated vocational choices. Other specific comparisons can be made in accordance with the reader's interest.

*Guidance in relation to college plans.*—What vocational choice has been made by a high-school youth or whether a choice has been made may depend on whether he expects to attend college, or his vocational choice may be important in selecting a college to attend.

Of the pupils supplying data on this point, 798 boys and 975 girls planned to go to college. Of the boys, 31.2 per cent were high-school Freshmen and 22.1 per cent were Seniors, whereas 34.0 per cent of the girls were Freshmen and 16.2 per cent Seniors. Of pupils of all grades, 57.4 per cent of the boys and 53.2 per cent of the girls knew what college they would probably attend. As might be expected, a larger percentage of Seniors than of Freshmen knew what college they would probably attend. The percentages were: Freshman boys, 49.8; Senior boys, 65.5; Freshman girls, 45.5; Senior girls, 69.7. Approximately a third of the youths who planned to go to college made a late decision concerning the college to be attended. This statement, of course, does not allow for those who indicated on the questionnaire that they had selected a college but who would change their minds before entering. Could guidance improve this situation?

College and vocational plans of high-school youth may be influenced by the educational level attained by parents. Data are given in Table 3 classifying college and vocational plans of pupils on the basis of the college attendance of the parents.

TABLE 3

GUIDANCE RECEIVED BY HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS IN ELEVEN GEORGIA HIGH SCHOOLS IN RELATION TO THEIR OWN COLLEGE AND VOCATIONAL PLANS AND IN RELATION TO COLLEGE EXPERIENCE OF THEIR PARENTS

PERSON FROM WHOM GUIDANCE WAS RECEIVED	BOTH PARENTS ATTENDED COLLEGE		FATHER ONLY ATTENDED COLLEGE		MOTHER ONLY ATTENDED COLLEGE		NEITHER PARENT ATTENDED COLLEGE	
	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls
Having Vocation in Mind and Going to College								
Principal or teacher on subjects. . . .	63	59	63	59	71	61	62	63
Principal or teacher on vocational choice. . . . .	30	33	26	34	40	24	32	35
Principal or teacher on vocational literature. . . . .	26	19	23	28	21	22	30	29
Acquaintance or associate. . . . .	69	66	61	69	71	58	70	66
Father urging his vocation. . . . .	17	3	5	4	5	4	9	4
Number of pupils reporting. . . . .	109	120	57	74	58	76	315	405
Having No Vocation in Mind and Going to College								
Principal or teacher on subjects. . . .	55	52	59	68	65	62	61	59
Principal or teacher on vocational choice. . . . .	22	20	29	35	20	38	25	24
Principal or teacher on vocational literature. . . . .	20	22	35	33	20	17	19	21
Acquaintance or associate. . . . .	53	57	76	63	53	55	62	49
Father urging his vocation. . . . .	16	5	6	5	10	3	11	2
Number of pupils reporting. . . . .	55	60	17	40	40	29	147	171

TABLE 3—Continued

PERSON FROM WHOM GUIDANCE WAS RECEIVED	BOTH PARENTS ATTENDED COLLEGE		FATHER ONLY ATTENDED COLLEGE		MOTHER ONLY ATTENDED COLLEGE		NEITHER PARENT ATTENDED COLLEGE	
	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls	Per- cent- age of Boys	Per- cent- age of Girls
Having Vocation in Mind and Not Going to College								
Principal or teacher on subjects....	57	82	58	79	53	71	61	66
Principal or teacher on vocational choice.....	14	45	50	43	24	0	33	37
Principal or teacher on vocational literature.....	14	55	25	36	29	57	28	27
Acquaintance or associate.....	57	55	58	85	53	43	62	65
Father urging his vocation.....	14	18	0	7	6	0	12	3
Number of pupils reporting.....	7	11	12	14	17	7	145	260
Having No Vocation in Mind and Not Going to College								
Principal or teacher on subjects.....	100	50	50	80	38	60	62	
Principal or teacher on vocational choice.....	100	25	40	20	13	23	27	
Principal or teacher on vocational literature.....	100	25	30	20	13	24	19	
Acquaintance or associate.....	100	50	30	80	63	50	53	
Father urging his vocation.....	100	13	0	20	0	8	5	
Numbers of pupils reporting.....	0	1	8	10	5	8	187	162

Usable data were supplied by 1,179 boys and 1,448 girls, approximately two-thirds of whom came from parents who had not attended college. This fact may reflect parental zeal to have children profit by education which parents themselves missed, plus a generation of change in educational consciousness and in social and economic conditions. A slightly larger percentage of the girls than of the boys came from homes in which only fathers attended college, whereas a somewhat larger percentage of the boys than of the girls came from homes in which only mothers attended. Does this differ-

ence mean that a parent who has attended college sees the shortcomings of a mate who has not done so more clearly than he sees such shortcomings in his own sex? Could it suggest, in a psychoanalytic sense, a slight Electra or Oedipus favoritism by parents?

Of pupils going to college, a larger percentage of boys than of girls, in general, reported guidance on school subjects. Almost the reverse tendency appeared in the case of those not going to college, although the data were somewhat meager and inconsistent on this point. This sex difference in the case of pupils going to college may reflect the boys' anticipation of vocations which require more rigid preparatory sequences than do the vocations anticipated by the girls. If so, the reverse tendency among boys not going to college, as compared with girls, suggests a higher degree of academic drift among boys. Does this finding mean that the high school offers less to the boy than to the girl who does not go to college?

The source of guidance information, in relation to the kind of guidance received, deserves further comment. Irrespective of the sex of the pupil, of his having made a vocational choice, or of his intention regarding attendance at college, most of the guidance which pupils received from principals and teachers related to school subjects. From teachers and principals, pupils received somewhat more guidance on vocational choices than on where to find literature and information regarding vocations. On the whole, more pupils reported guidance from acquaintances and associates than from principals and teachers. Do the foregoing findings mean that whatever guidance principals and teachers attempt to offer regarding vocations is in the form of scattered and random remarks from slowly accumulated impressions rather than systematic attempts to inform youth and that most of the guidance which the pupils obtain elsewhere is of the same general character? Certainly what young people need is guidance to *facts about* vocations rather than guidance *into* vocations.

Fathers who had gone to college apparently urged their own vocations on their sons in only a slightly larger percentage of cases than fathers who had not attended college, although fathers of the first group were probably in the preferred vocations. Perhaps fathers, irrespective of vocations, tend somewhat to urge their children to do the things that they as fathers know about. However, in prac-

tically every category only a small percentage of pupils indicated that their fathers urged their own vocations on the children. Most students of adolescent psychology would accept this fact as in keeping with the principle that adolescents should be free from parental goading in matters of vocational choice.

Tabulations of the data of Table 3 according to school grades are not included here. Certain grade comparisons will, however, be mentioned. In cases where fathers or both parents had attended college, no consistent differences appeared, for pupils who were going to college and who had vocations in mind, between the percentages of Freshmen and of Seniors reporting guidance on vocations or vocational literature. However, in cases in which mothers or neither parent had attended college, a larger percentage of Seniors than of Freshmen consistently reported such guidance. Possibly in the first type of parental background a different vocational atmosphere pervaded the home from that accompanying the second type of background, whereby guidance orientation as such, however received, was not so consciously impressed on the pupil. Thus it might be less frequently referred to by the pupil as "guidance."

In the other three vocational categories of children of parents who had not attended college, that is, children who had no vocations in mind or who, if so, were not going to college, the Seniors consistently reported more guidance than Freshmen, particularly on vocations and on vocational literature. In the case of guidance from acquaintances or associates, whether pupils had vocations in mind or whether they expected to attend college, a higher percentage of Seniors uniformly reported guidance. A larger percentage of Seniors, especially among boys, similarly reported guidance regarding school subjects.

These comparisons between school grades suggest that most of whatever guidance is offered in these schools is on school subjects and that a larger percentage of pupils who survive to the Senior year have had such guidance than of those who do not survive. Perhaps the data further suggest that whatever vocational orientation the school gives, is given without particular regard to the grade level of pupils.

*Summary and conclusions.*—The foregoing pages justify certain summary statements.



1. These Georgia high-school boys engaged in non-school work to a greater extent than did the girls, and reasons are suggested why the difference between the sexes might be greater in this state than in some other states. Moreover, the boys showed a wider distribution among vocations chosen than did the girls, but among boys a higher percentage of those who worked than of those who did not had failed to make vocational choices.

2. A larger percentage of pupils with vocations in mind than of pupils without vocations in mind reported guidance from persons other than principals and teachers, although a significant percentage of pupils reported no guidance and no vocations in mind.

3. Approximately a third of the high-school Seniors who planned to go to college did not know what college they would probably attend. An earlier decision might be an asset and might be brought about by appropriate guidance.

4. A somewhat larger percentage of the boys than of the girls came from families in which both parents had attended college, whereas a slightly larger percentage of the girls than of the boys came from families in which neither parent had been in college. The data regarding plans of pupils with respect to their own attendance at college are in harmony with the foregoing data. If, then, college background of parents can be used as a rough index of socio-economic status, the data suggest that among the more prominent families secondary education for the boys is emphasized to a greater extent than is secondary education for the girls. While, in the main, this fact may have sociological significance other than that of guidance, yet it does bear on vocational selection and on non-school guidance offered.

5. Most of the guidance actually received by the high-school pupils reporting in this study seems to have been haphazard and incidental. Apparently the schools concerned made little systematic effort to give the pupils vocational information and only a slightly greater effort to do the less important job of giving them advice. Most of the guidance which the schools offered, as given through the principals and teachers, related to school subjects, and in many instances this help may not have been the most important aspect of guidance at the high-school level.

## SELECTED REFERENCES ON SECONDARY-SCHOOL INSTRUCTION

### III. THE SUBJECT FIELDS—Continued

LEONARD V. KOOS AND COLLABORATORS

This third and final list of selected references on secondary-school instruction to appear in the current volume of the *School Review* contains items dealing with the subject fields not represented in the list published in the February issue, namely, industrial and vocational arts, agriculture, home economics, business education, music, art, and physical education. The present list, like the first and the second, follows a definition of "instruction" which includes its three main aspects of (1) curriculum, (2) methods of teaching and study and measurement, and (3) supervision.

#### INDUSTRIAL AND VOCATIONAL ARTS

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University of Minnesota

192. BACON, FRANCIS LEONARD. "A Dynamic Program of Vocational Education for Secondary Schools," *Industrial Education Magazine*, XXXIX (January, 1937), 4-7.

A brief of a report on vocational education made by the Committee on Orientation of the Department of Secondary-School Principals of the National Education Association.

193. BENNETT, CHARLES ALPHEUS. *History of Manual and Industrial Education, 1870 to 1917*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1937. Pp. 566.

This scholarly contribution, a companion volume to the author's earlier work describing industrial education up to 1870, establishes Bennett as the historian of the movement. Of excellent style, with selected facts and mature interpretations, with 140 illustrations, and with copious quotations from original sources, the book presents the significant steps in the development of the manual arts in the schools of Europe and the United States. A feature of the book is a six-page chart of dates.

194. CHRISTOPHERSON, C. H., WHITE, H. B., and NEUBAUER, L. W. *The Farm Shop*. University of Minnesota, Agricultural Extension Division, Spe-

cial Bulletin 190. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1937. Pp. 16.

A concise and practical bulletin which should be of assistance to industrial teachers, agricultural teachers, and school administrators in rural and small-town areas. The emphasis has been placed on the need of a shop on the farm. A priced list of related government publications has been included.

195. CRAIGO, RALPH THURMAN. "Twenty-five Years with Related Subjects," *Industrial Education Magazine*, XXXIX (March, 1937), 97-100.

The important problems of related and technical instruction, as a part of trade preparation, are here presented by an able administrator in a first-class institution, the William Hood Dunwoody Industrial Institute, Minneapolis, Minnesota.

196. DENNIS, L. H. (Editor). "The Baltimore Convention," *American Vocational Association Journal and News Bulletin*, XII (November, 1937), 203-48.

This advance program of the thirty-first annual convention of the American Vocational Association held in Baltimore, December 1-4, 1937, should interest all educational workers. Organization of this professional group, the session themes, the titles of addresses, and the names and the positions of the school and industrial leaders who participated are indicative of current thought and trends in many instructional fields.

197. HARGITT, GEORGE HAROLD. "Home Planning—An Important Industrial-Arts Subject," *Industrial Education Magazine*, XXXIX (November, 1937), 260-65.

The author suggests a broadly instructional unit on the home, with little detailed pencil and pen work such as is common in courses in architectural drawing. He justifies such a unit and discusses content, method, and teaching facilities.

198. HUGHES, WAYNE P. "Teaching Aids," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXVI (September, 1937), 274-76.

A list of supplementary materials, helpful to teachers of wood-working and wood-finishing, which may be procured free or at small cost from manufacturing and distributing firms.

199. IOWA STATE BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. *The Evening School Instructor and His Job*. Bulletin No. 26, Series T I-9. Des Moines, Iowa: State Board for Vocational Education, 1937. Pp. 44.

A concise set of practical suggestions for teachers of adult evening classes in trade and industrial education. Teacher qualifications, student personnel problems, methods, management, course content, and instructional devices are discussed and illustrated.

200. LAKSO, EDWARD ARTHUR. "Building a Wren-House," *Industrial Education Magazine*, XXXIX (September, 1937), 204-9.

Details of a unit of instruction in eighth-grade wood-working. An exposition of current method with emphasis on correlation of manipulative processes, related technical information, consumer knowledge, and occupational guidance.

201. MAYS, ARTHUR B. (Editor). "Industrial Arts Number," *Education*, LVIII (November, 1937), 129-92.

A special issue of an important educational journal, devoted to explanation of current thought and practice in the industrial arts. Fifteen specialists in this curriculum area present their views on a variety of phases of the work.

202. OXLEY, HOWARD W. "C.C.C. Education Strengthened To Meet Enrollee Needs," *American Vocational Association Journal and News Bulletin*, XII (September, 1937), 151-53.

A brief, informative, and forward-looking statement by the director of camp education of the Civilian Conservation Corps. Discusses the needs of enrollees, expansion of facilities, vocational-training projects, and the co-operation desired.

203. *Statement of Policies for the Administration of Vocational Education*. United States Office of Education, Vocational Education Bulletin, No. 1, General Series No. 1, 1937 (revised). Pp. x+138.

This bulletin supersedes earlier statements of policies and anticipates expansion of federally aided vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act (1917) and the George-Deen Act (1936). All fields or subjects earlier concerned are here covered, and a new field, "Distributive Education," is added. Tables give allotments of federal money by states and services.

204. WILLIAMS, BURTON T. "100 Hobbies for the Junior-High-School Boy," *Industrial Arts and Vocational Education*, XXVI (October, 1937), 316-20.

A discussion of the civic and pedagogical use of hobbies, particularly for adolescent boys. More than two hundred references are supplied under a total of one hundred sections, grouped into five major divisions: "Outdoor Hobbies," "Indoor Hobbies," "Things To Make," "Pets," and "Collections." There are additional bibliographical items of professional nature.

205. WILSON, WILLIAM GRANT. *Directory of Vocational Teachers of Agriculture, Home-Making, and Trades and Industries in the United States—Eleventh Edition*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: William Grant Wilson (777 Concord Avenue), 1937.

A roster of persons directly responsible for "vocational education" as popularly conceived. It shows names and addresses of executive officers of state boards, state directors, state supervisors, teacher trainers, and instructors. The fields of agricultural education, homemaking education, trade and industrial education, and rehabilitation are covered by states. *General* and *vocational* personnel in these special fields seem to have been confused in such a way as to suggest the desirability of broadening the directory title or eliminating parts of the lists.

AGRICULTURE<sup>1</sup>

SHERMAN DICKINSON

University of Missouri

206. BEARER, E. V. "Character Traits Developed in All-Day School Pupils through Vocational Agriculture," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (July, 1937), 15.  
Presents the results of a survey on character-trait development among pupils in vocational agriculture in New Jersey.
207. BOLENDER, E. O. "To What Extent Are the Individual Supervised Farm Practice Programs Helping Boys To Become Established in Farming?" *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (October, 1937), 68, 75-76.  
Five actual cases are described, illustrating how boys studying vocational agriculture became established in farming through supervised practice activities.
208. COOK, G. C. "Cadet Fifth-Year Training Program in Hawaii," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (October, 1937), 65, 73.  
A description of a novel plan of teacher training by the cadet system, pointing out practices and advantages.
209. DEYOE, G. P., and DOSER, M. A. "Teaching Soil Conservation," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (September, 1937), 46-47, 53.  
A practical presentation of methods which should be effective in teaching soil conservation, including objectives, instructional materials and procedures, and home-farm practice.
210. EKSTROM, GEORGE F. "Some Principles for Consideration in Organizing Home Practice Work," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (July, 1937), 8-9.  
Suggests and explains seven fundamental principles involved in the proper conduct of supervised practice in agriculture.
211. FIFE, RAY. "Whither Agricultural Education in Co-operating with Farmers' Organizations?" *Agricultural Education*, IX (February, 1937), 115-16.  
Urges and presents reasons for co-operation between vocational-agriculture education and farmers' groups. Points out that vocational-agriculture education should concern itself exclusively with educational aspects of such organizations. Contends that the F.F.A. should definitely lead to increased membership in adult groups.
212. FORMBY, J. R. "Developing a Poultry Evening School," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (July, 1937), 10-11.  
An interesting description of the procedures followed by a vocational teacher in leading the people of his community to recognize the value of adult education.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 194 (Christopherson, White, and Neubauer) in this list.

213. GENTRY, C. B. "Whither Agricultural Education in Measuring and Evaluating Pupil Growth?" *Agricultural Education*, IX (March, 1937), 131-32, 135.  
Presents possibilities for checking and testing pupils on various types of attainments, such as manual skills, managerial ability, attitudes, ideals, and other patterns of conduct.
214. GETMAN, A. K. "Whither Agricultural Education in the Art of Living?" *Agricultural Education*, IX (May, 1937), 163-64.  
A presentation of some of the frequently overlooked aspects of agricultural education, including inspiration, use of leisure, and spiritual resources.
215. GIBSON, HOWARD. "Problems and Procedures in Starting and Supervising Boys in New Types of Farming," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (August, 1937), 28-29, 33, 38.  
An extensive discussion of the problems to be faced by the teacher in introducing projects in enterprises not included in the community type of farming.
216. HAMLIN, H. M. "Agricultural Planning and Agricultural Education," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (October, 1937), 64, 72-73.  
Points out the relation between planning groups and agricultural education and the co-ordinating functions of each.
217. HAMMONDS, CARSIE. "Evidences from Curriculum Researches of the Need for Further Studies," *Agricultural Education*, IX (March, 1937), 133, 144.  
A concise presentation of ten suggestions showing the need for further elaborated curriculum studies in agricultural education.
218. HEMMING, C. J. "The Objective Question as a Factor in the Improvement of Teaching," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (November, 1937), 94-95, 98.  
A detailed discussion of the use and the construction of objective-type examinations in vocational agriculture. Includes a statement of objectives and principles, and gives numerous examples.
219. LINKE, J. A. "Which Way Vocational Agriculture?" *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (July, 1937), 4-5.  
A brief statement of some of the more important problems which face vocational education in agriculture at the present time.
220. MCCLELLAND, J. B. "Placement Opportunities for All-Day and Part-Time Students of Vocational Agriculture," *Agricultural Education*, IX (April and May, 1937), 156-57, 160; 168-69.  
An analysis of the problems involved in the placement and the permanent establishment of young men in farming occupations. Part I outlines the problem, and Part II presents the findings.



221. POLLOM, L. B. "Where Are We Now and Where Are We Going?" *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (December, 1937), 104-5, 118.  
A brief discussion of the development of vocational-agriculture education. Emphasizes placement and parental co-operation as special needs.
222. SANDERS, H. W. "What Progress Has Been Made in Planning Supervised Farming?" *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (November, 1937), 88-89, 93.  
An explanation of program-building in supervised practice, based on an "ideal program setup" for any particular type of farming.
223. STARRAK, J. A. "If I Were Again a Teacher of Vocational Agriculture," *Agricultural Education*, IX (April, 1937), 150-51.  
A personalized presentation of desirable practices, attitudes, and ideals which should guide the teacher of vocational agriculture.
224. STEWART, R. M. "Whither Agricultural Education in Teacher Education?" *Agricultural Education*, IX (April, 1937), 147-49.  
A brief analysis of six significant problems in the training of agricultural teachers, among which are participation training, guidance, placement, and certification.
225. STIMSON, RUFUS W. "Whither Agricultural Education? Balanced Education," *Agricultural Education*, IX (January, 1937), 99-103.  
A discussion of the importance of recognizing the broad aspects of farmer training, namely, education for life. Includes a brief historical sketch describing the original conception of the supervised-practice idea.
226. STIMSON, RUFUS W. "Basic Principles and Practices in Follow-up of Former Vocational Pupils in Massachusetts," *Agricultural Education*, IX (June, 1937), 179-81.  
A clear and concise discussion of ten principles which the author considers necessary in any successful follow-up program for vocational-agriculture pupils.
227. WHEELER, JOHN T. "Apprenticeship Training in Teacher Education," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (November, 1937), 84-85.  
A detailed and concise discussion of apprentice training. Treats organization, financing, supervision, and other phases of the problem.
228. WILSON, J. H. "Suiting the Project Selection to the Local Home Farm," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (September, 1937), 48-49.  
A detailed discussion of long-time planning of supervised practice, illustrated with an actual case.
229. WILSON, M. R. "Farm Mechanics Now and Tomorrow," *Agricultural Education Magazine*, X (September, 1937), 52-53.  
A thoughtful presentation of the importance of instruction in farm mechanics, including statement of aims and desirable practices.

HOME ECONOMICS<sup>1</sup>

CLARA M. BROWN

University of Minnesota

230. ANDERSON, HATTIE E. "Trained Maids . . . or Muddlers?" *Forecast*, LIII (December, 1937), 439-41, 470.  
Milwaukee Vocational School has undertaken the task of training girls for household employment. A detailed description is furnished of the units offered and of the equipment and furnishings, together with the floor plan, of the apartment in which the girls work.
231. "Community Programs of Education in Family Living from the Viewpoint of Home Economics." United States Office of Education, Vocational Division, Misc. 1938, November, 1937. Pp. ii+48 (mimeographed).  
Reports programs of education for family living in nine states, describes units of work offered at various levels to in-school and out-of-school groups, and explains how each program is administered.
232. FALLGATTER, FLORENCE. "Opportunity for Progressive Home Economics Education in Secondary Schools," *Practical Home Economics*, XV (June, 1937), 197-98, 230.  
The author believes that public-school administrators are showing increased interest in a program dealing with home and family life and that home economists must discover what contribution they can make to such a program.
233. FIRTH, MAUDE M. "Teaching Family Relationships to Mixed Classes," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (March, 1937), 151-53.  
After teaching family relationships to segregated groups for ten years, the schools in Tulsa, Oklahoma, experimented with teaching this course to classes of boys and girls together. The gratifying results seem to warrant continuing the new plan, since parents as well as the boys and girls were more enthusiastic over the course than in any previous year.
234. FLEMINGTON, CLARA. "A One Year Effective Course in Homemaking," *Practical Home Economics*, XV (August, 1937), 276.  
Describes an elective course offered in senior high school during the past six years at Aberdeen, South Dakota, in addition to the two- or three-year vocational homemaking program. The course is planned for pupils who wish to devote only one unit to home economics. The pupils study their personal problems, the arrangement and management of homes, how to spend their earnings or allowances, and how to understand little children. The chief objective is to develop desirable attitudes toward home and family life.
235. HAUSRATH, A. H. "Child-Care Unit of Triplett High School Uses Real Babies," *Clearing House*, XII (September, 1937), 51-52.  
Describes a nursery school, set up in a consolidated school in Missouri, in which the girls planned and helped to make the equipment, planned and prepared

<sup>1</sup> See also Items 649 (McBain) and 655 (Van Liew) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1937, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

meals for the children, and supervised the children's play and rest periods. Later, children, equipment, and home-economics girls were transported to the state fair, where the nursery school functioned for a week.

236. HUSTON, HAZEL H. "Measuring Achievement in Home Economics," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (January, 1937), 19-22.

Tells of the six-year program in Ohio, in which teachers were helped to define their objectives in terms of pupil behavior, to set up testing situations where desired behavior could be expressed, to develop practicable methods of recording responses, and to evaluate the tests that they devised.

237. LINDEMAN, EDUARD C. "Is Home Economics a Growing Profession?" *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (September, 1937), 433-36.

A stimulating discussion of the direction which home economics should follow in the future and of the problems which should be its major concern.

238. MONROE, DAY. "Levels of Living of the Nation's Families," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (December, 1937), 665-70.

Findings of the Study of Consumer Purchases, carried on by the United States Bureau of Home Economics in co-operation with other government agencies and financed by the Works Progress Administration, reveal the distressingly low economic level of the majority of American families and challenge home economists to renew their attack on the problem of helping families use their resources to the maximum.

239. OATMAN, ILMA BADGLEY. "Contributions of Home Economics to the Core Curriculum at the University High School, Oakland, California," "Nineteenth Annual Pacific Regional Conference: Home Economics Education," pp. 19-21. United States Office of Education, Vocational Division, Misc. 1978, October, 1937.

Describes a three-year curriculum in a senior high school in which health, consumer buying, money management, home recreation, and personal and family relationships are included in the core material. Home-economics teachers assist in planning and teaching the work, and home-economics books are among the references.

240. SPAFFORD, IVOL. "Home Economics in General Education," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (December, 1937), 671-76.

Home-economics teachers and administrators should find much food for thought in this stimulating discussion of current trends in general education and in the author's conception of the part that home economics should play in a reorganized program of education.

241. SWAIN, FRANCES L. "Social Factors Which Influence Curriculum Revision in Home Economics," *Secondary Education*, VI (January, 1937), 7-11.

Indicates how current social and economic trends should be reflected in the home-economics curriculum and stresses the need for greater consideration of consumer education for persons on low incomes, of housing problems, and of ways in which girls can be prepared for both wage-earning and homemaking.

242. WALSH, LETITIA. "Home Economics in General Education at Elementary and Secondary Levels," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (October, 1937), 531-36.

The author sees emerging a new educational pattern in which emphasis will be placed on functional values and unification. Home economics will form a vital part of this pattern if leaders and teachers sense the contribution that it can make in helping *all* girls and boys attain a satisfying personal and family life.

243. WILSON, MAUD. "The Scope of Housing in Home Economics," *Journal of Home Economics*, XXIX (June, 1937), 361-66.

Challenges home economists to consider the fundamental problems of housing, especially for families on low incomes; to work with other groups in setting up minimum as well as desirable standards; to stress home management and the conditioning factors of family relationships; and to consider how much a family can afford to spend for shelter, rather than to plan and furnish "ideal" homes. Suggests contributions that home economics could make to prospective architects and others who will build and equip houses.

#### BUSINESS EDUCATION\*

FREDERICK J. WEERSING

University of Southern California

244. ABRAMS, RAY. *A Commercial Curriculum for Postgraduates*. Monograph 32. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1936. Pp. 32.

Report of a questionnaire study of commercial employment opportunities and requirements in New Orleans used as a basis for a curriculum in the Joseph A. Maybin School for [high-school] Graduates. Significant as concrete evidence of the tendency to move the beginning of vocational training up to the junior-college level.

245. BLACKSTONE, E. G., and SMITH, S. L. *Improvement of Instruction in Typewriting*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1936. Pp. xii+552.

A comprehensive treatment for both prospective and experienced teachers, embodying the results of hundreds of the best researches available on all phases of the subject.

246. "Business Education in the Small High School—A Survey," *National Business Education Quarterly*, V (March, 1937), 1-48.

Brief summaries of courses offered in eight states in various sections of the country, with compilations of aims and contemplated changes. Also excellent interpretive articles by M. E. Studebaker, Helen Reynolds, and A. O. Colvin.

247. DOUGLAS, LLOYD V. "Materials and Techniques in Non-vocational Book-keeping," *Journal of Business Education*, XII (March and April, 1937), 17-18, 19-20.

\* See also Item 38 (Spears) in the list of selected references appearing in the January, 1938, number of the *School Review*.

- Reports a controlled-group experiment to discover the value of certain non-vocational objectives and materials in beginning bookkeeping, as measured by an inventory test of general business knowledge and recording ability.
248. "Floor Plans for the Commercial Department," *National Business Education Quarterly*, V (December, 1936), 1-48.  
Reproductions of some floor plans in use, with scattered suggestions for improvement. No systematic studies are included.
249. GRAHAM, JESSIE. "New Developments in Business Education," *Junior College Journal*, VII (March, 1937), 319-22.  
A summary of questionnaire returns from thirty-five junior colleges regarding new courses and curriculums, new methods, new contacts with business, and new emphases in business education at this level.
250. *Job Opportunity Survey*. Monograph 33. Cincinnati, Ohio: South-Western Publishing Co., 1936. Pp. 32.  
Report of a survey made by the commercial teachers in the public schools of Evansville, Indiana, of commercial positions in the community and of the education and training desired by employers.
251. LOMAX, PAUL S., and ALSPACH, EVELYN. "Curriculum Investigations—Commercial Education," *Review of Educational Research*, VII (April, 1937), 131-35, 192-97.  
A brief review of one hundred research references, under fourteen headings, covering the period from December 1, 1933, to December 1, 1936.
252. *Objective Teaching Devices in Business Education*. Sixth Yearbook of the Commercial Education Association of New York City and Vicinity. Brooklyn, New York: Commercial Education Association of New York City and Vicinity (M. K. Bentley, Secretary, % Girls' Commercial High School), 1936. Pp. 222.  
Presents some thirty papers and comments on teaching methods, broadly considered, both in general terms and with application to particular problems and courses.
253. ODELL, WILLIAM R. "Shorthand Methods and Materials," *Business Education World*, XVII (September, 1936, to June, 1937), 21-26, 101-5, 175-77, 282-85, 362-64, 408-12, 495-98, 564-69, 660-63, 753-57.  
A notable series of articles on a comprehensive number of aspects of shorthand-teaching. Based on an analytical comparison of ten methods in current use.
254. *Practice Teaching and Business Experience in Commercial Teacher Training*. National Association of Commercial Teacher-training Institutions, Bulletin No. 11. Muncie, Indiana: Vernal H. Carmichael, Secretary (% Ball State Teachers College), 1937. Pp. 30.  
Questionnaire returns from fifty-two commercial teacher-training institutions reporting numerous details of administration of practice teaching, followed by

a brief summary of questionnaire returns from twenty-two institutions reporting practices and opinions regarding business experience as a requirement for prospective teachers of business subjects.

255. SMITH, HAROLD H. "Metronomic Rhythm in Typing Found To Be a Fallacy," *Business Education World*, XVII (December, 1936), 276-81.  
The first of a series of four studies of "pattern rhythm" versus metronomic rhythm in the operation of a typewriter. Based on a series of experiments in the use of rhythm devices.
256. *Tenth Annual Conference of the National Association of Commercial Teacher-training Institutions*. National Association of Commercial Teacher-training Institutions, Bulletin No. 12. Muncie, Indiana: Vernal H. Carmichael, Secretary (% Ball State Teachers College), 1937. Pp. 30.  
Presents four significant articles relating to retail selling education.
257. "Training for Clerical Employment," *National Business Education Quarterly*, V (May, 1937), 1-64.  
Articles on fourteen aspects of general office training by teachers of office-practice subjects, followed by a selected bibliography of more than a hundred titles on office practice and the teaching of office practice.
258. WALTERS, R. G. "And Now It's Integration," *Business Education World*, XVII (March, 1937), 477-80.  
A thoughtful analysis of certain current innovations in curriculum organization and teaching procedures and their application to business education.

#### MUSIC<sup>1</sup>

ANNE E. PIERCE  
University of Iowa

259. DANN HOLLIS. "Some Essentials of Choral Singing," *Music Educators Journal*, XXIV (September, 1937), 27, 73.  
The author points out defects in the singing of the average choral group and tells how vocal performance may be improved.
260. DVORAK, RAYMOND FRANCIS. *The Band on Parade*. New York: Carl Fischer, Inc., 1937. Pp. 116.  
Contains detailed information concerning marching and parades. Directions for formations are amplified by many illustrations. One chapter is devoted entirely to baton maneuvers.
261. GEHRKENS, KARL W. "Musical Offerings in High School," *Music Educators Journal*, XXIV (September, 1937), 30-32.  
Deals in a general way with the music curriculum in the small, the medium-sized, and the large high school.

<sup>1</sup> See also Item 610 (Higginson), Item 611, and Item 615 (Swisher and Keller) in the list of selected references appearing in the November, 1937, number of the *Elementary School Journal*.

262. HINDSLEY, MARK H. "The Advanced Class for the Instrumentalist," *Educational Music Magazine*, XVII (November-December, 1937), 11, 38:  
The last of a series of three articles dealing with organization, administration, and teaching of instrumental classes from the beginning to advanced grades of work.
263. MCEACHERN, EDNA. *A Survey and Evaluation of the Education of School Music Teachers in the United States*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 701. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. viii+184.  
Presents contemporary problems and gives a provisional program for the education of teachers of school music. The findings and recommendations are based on questionnaires and visitation to schools and colleges throughout the country and on opinions of experts in the field.
264. MURSELL, JAMES L. *The Psychology of Music*. New York: W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. 390.  
Discusses the psychology of tonal and rhythmic forms, of listening, of performing, and of composing. One section deals with the psychology of the musician and includes discussion of the measurement and the diagnosis of musical abilities. The author has avoided the use of technical terms confusing to the layman, thereby making the book useful to the average teacher of music.
265. MURSELL, JAMES L. "The Educational Integration of the Arts," *Teachers College Record*, XXXIX (November, 1937), 121-31.  
A plea for co-operative educational planning in the arts, with suggestions on how an effective integration may be evolved.
266. PITTS, LILLA BELLE, and GRAY, JEAN MACKIE. *Primitive Musicians in the New World (Grade VII)* and *Scenes Famous in Songs (Grade V)*. Teachers' Lesson Unit Series, No. 96. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 34.  
The pamphlet gives an approach to the first unit, its development, activities, materials, integrative scheme, and educational and appreciational results. A useful list of readings for teacher and pupil is supplied. The descriptive bibliography and material for the third section, although planned primarily for an intermediate grade, are useful in upper levels of instruction.
267. RIGG, MELVIN. "An Experiment To Determine How Accurately College Students Can Interpret the Intended Meanings of Musical Compositions," *Journal of Experimental Psychology*, XXI (August, 1937), 223-29.  
Although the experiment involved college students, it is applicable to the high-school level. Findings revealed that students were able to classify music as sad or joyful but were less successful in making finer discriminations. The author thinks that program notes which attempt to give music inner meaning are without validity, although he believes that they may be useful in establishing associations.



268. *Standards of Adjudication*. Report of the Committee on Adjudication of the American Bandmasters Association. Chicago: National School Band Association (affiliated with Music Educators National Conference), 1936. Pp. 20.  
Gives advice and directions to judges and managers of competitive music meets and festivals.
269. WILKINSON, HELEN. "Music in the Evansville Schools," *Journal of Education*, CXX (January 4, 1937), 15-17.  
States the purposes and outlines the course of study in music from kindergarten through senior high school in the public schools of Evansville, Indiana.
270. WILSON, M. EMETT. "Success in the Assembly," *Educational Music Magazine*, XVII (November-December, 1937), 21, 43.  
Describes a plan for assembly singing.

ART<sup>\*</sup>

W. G. WHITFORD

271. BILLINGTON, DORA M. *The Art of the Potter*. London: Oxford University Press, 1937. Pp. x+128.  
Published in the series of "The Little Craft Books" edited by F. V. Burridge. A treatise developing understanding and appreciation of the craft rather than a textbook of working directions. The development of ancient and modern pottery is discussed.
272. BIRREN, FABER. *Functional Color*. New York: Crimson Press, 1937. Pp. 124.  
A compilation of practical facts about color which are of interest to the painter, designer, interior decorator, architect, and all persons who use color artistically, commercially, or scientifically.
273. BOAS, GEORGE. *A Primer for Critics*. Baltimore: Johns Hopkins Press, 1937. Pp. viii+154.  
A thoughtful essay furnishing genuine aid for art teachers who wish to establish a practical basis for developing the work in art appreciation. Clarifies concepts and removes the mystery surrounding many theories of art.
274. CHENEY, SHELDON, and CHENEY, MARTHA CANDLER. *Art and the Machine*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. xviii+308.  
A publication resulting from the research of the authors on modern industrial design. Deals with the evolution of art in the industrial field, the influence of the machine in production, practical expression embodying utilitarian forms, trends in modern industrial production, and the place of the artist in the practical activities of the modern world. The book is profusely illustrated with line and halftone plates and contains an excellent annotated bibliography.

<sup>\*</sup> See also Item 193 (Bennett) in this list.

275. FORSYTH, GORDON. *20th Century Ceramics*. New York: Studio Publications, Inc., 1936. Pp. 128.  
Discusses the place of pottery among the industries of today, developments in production and design, and modern characteristics of the art. Profusely illustrated with nine pages in full color.
276. FURST, HERBERT. *Art Debunked*. New York: E. P. Dutton & Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. 136.  
A strong blast of common sense against the accretions and the associations of "art" which prevent it from functioning as it should in our social system.
277. GUPTILL, ARTHUR L. *Sketching as a Hobby*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1936. Pp. xviii+150.  
Contains valuable illustrative material and descriptive text for the aid of the beginner in art expression.
278. NEUHAUS, EUGEN. *World of Art*. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. xviii+292.  
A guide to the understanding and the enjoyment of art in its many and varied manifestations. Presents a foundation based on aesthetic principles for a general appreciation of the arts. Discusses the relation of art to society through a historical review of the subject.
279. POORE, HENRY RANKIN. *Art's Place in Education*. New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons, 1937. Pp. xvi+236.  
Based on the concepts that an intimate relation exists between all the arts through a code of principles applicable alike to each and that comprehension of art is as vital to modern culture as is science or ethics. A valuable book for the development of a valid approach to art education.
280. POPE, ARTHUR. *Art, Artist, and Layman*. Cambridge, Massachusetts: Harvard University Press, 1937. Pp. vi+152.  
A discussion of the aims in the teaching of the visual arts. Primarily for the practicing artist and the understanding layman but treats briefly art education at elementary-school, high-school, and college levels.
281. READ, HERBERT. *Art and Society*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. xx+282.  
A skillfully organized book by a well-known English author and editor of the *Burlington Magazine for Connoisseurs*. Presents a sociological approach to the history and survey of art. Considers the fundamentals of art in relation to society from primitive to modern times. Excellently illustrated.
282. ROOS, FRANK J., JR. *An Illustrated Handbook of Art History*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. iv+304.  
A pictorial history which traces art development from works of earliest prehistoric times to the most modern pieces in painting, sculpture, architecture, prints, and drawings. Contains two thousand rotogravure reproductions, detailed charts showing the chronological development of art, and an index.

283. SHAW, THEODORE L. *Art Reconstructed*. Boston: Marshall Jones Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. viii+274.  
A theory of aesthetics based on simple and understandable instincts of man's nature. Proceeds on the hypothesis that "art is rareness" and attempts to develop a theory of aesthetic interpretation based on this concept.
284. THACH, STEPHEN D. *Painting as a Hobby*. New York: Harper & Bros., 1937. Pp. xvi+102.  
A skillfully organized book with charts, demonstration pages, and guide-sheet material offering constructive aid to the beginner in the art of painting.

## PHYSICAL EDUCATION

D. K. BRACE

University of Texas

285. BRACE, D. K. *Glossary of Physical Education Terms*, Part I. Houston, Texas: College Physical Education Association (Harry A. Scott, Secretary, % Rice Institute), 1937. Pp. 78.  
A dictionary of eighteen hundred technical terms in eighteen physical-education activities, including the major sports. Prepared with the assistance of a committee.
286. BUTLER, GEORGE D. (Editor). *Playgrounds—Their Administration and Operation*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. x+402.  
Recreation and civic leaders interested in the conduct of playgrounds will find this book valuable.
287. CHENOWETH, LAURENCE B., and SELKIRK, THEODORE K. *School Health Problems*. New York: F. S. Crofts & Co., 1937. Pp. xii+388.  
An excellent book on health education for secondary schools.
288. GOGLE, GLADYS B. *A Workbook in Health for High School Girls*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xvi+264.  
While some of the subject matter is slightly elementary, the book, as a teaching aid, has the advantages of the workbook.
289. LLOYD, FRANK S., DEAYER, G. G., and EASTWOOD, F. R. *Safety in Athletics*. Philadelphia: W. B. Saunders Co., 1936. Pp. 432.  
This analysis of the causes of accidents in athletics and suggestions for safety procedures should be studied by all persons having any responsibilities for school sports.
290. LOWMAN, CHARLES LEROY; ROEN, SUSAN G.; AUST, RUTH; and PAULL, HELEN G. *Technique of Underwater Gymnastics*. Los Angeles, California: American Publications, Inc., 1937. Pp. xiv+276.  
This book fills a need for a book on physiotherapy for muscle re-education carried on in water.

291. NORTON, EDWARD V. *Play Streets and Their Use for Recreational Programs*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. 78.  
The book will be helpful to teachers and play leaders who have to plan for recreational activities in restricted areas. It contains practical suggestions on organizing recreational activities.
292. O'DONNELL, MARY P., and DIETRICH, SALLY. *Notes for Modern Dance*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. x+60.  
A technical book for the teacher of modern dance who has had some training in the dance. Essentially a collection of music for dance movements, it also contains descriptions of techniques.
293. PHILLIPS, BERNATH E. *Fundamental Handball*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xiv+124.  
The great army of handball players, whether teachers or not, will aid their game by a study of this excellent book.
294. REYNOLDS, H. ATWOOD. *The Game-Way to Sports*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xiv+210.  
A collection of "athletic-type" or "lead-up" games which contain the elements of the principal athletic sports and which are useful in teaching sport skills.
295. SHARMAN, JACKSON R. *Modern Principles of Physical Education*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. viii+208.  
The lay reader may here secure an understanding of the social philosophy and guiding principles underlying the modern program of physical education.
296. SHARMAN, JACKSON R. *Physical Education Workbook*. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., Inc., 1936. Pp. xviii+152.  
Although this book is intended as a textbook in practice teaching, it will be helpful to the in-service teacher of physical education.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*Integration in theory and practice.*—It is doubtless safe to say that no concept has been more influential in affecting school practices in recent years, nor less generally understood, than that of integration. The term has been used by educators in discussing the child and his behavior, the curriculum, administrative organization, the social function of the school, and many other topics. It is not surprising, therefore, that there is little agreement as to the specific meaning of the word. A recent authoritative statement<sup>1</sup> concerning the meaning and the application of integration should go far to clarify this situation. This statement is found in the report of the Committee on Integration of the Society for Curriculum Study.

The first nine chapters of the volume are devoted to an examination of what is comprehended by integration. Integration is considered in its psychological and sociological, as well as in its pedagogical, sense. The evidence for integration in the fields of philosophy, biology, psychology, psychiatry, sociology, and the arts is presented by a recognized leader in each area. The second part of the book surveys many types of curriculums and evaluates them in terms of integration.

Most readers seeking a meaningful and vital curriculum will find the first half of the report particularly valuable. In this section the concept of integration is well defined in intelligible terms. Integration as the process of intelligent interacting of the individual with a situation within the environment; the stress on the total personality of the child; the fact that the child must maintain integration, not only within himself, but also with the existing culture; the dynamic nature of integration—all serve to reveal the inadequacies of the traditional subject-matter curriculum.

When the committee addresses itself to the application of these concepts in the practical school situation and to an evaluation of current curriculum practices, its conclusions probably merit less enthusiastic indorsement. The latter sections of the book carry the distinct impression that the effectiveness of a cur-

<sup>1</sup> L. Thomas Hopkins, with the co-operation of Fred M. Alexander, Sibyl Browne, J. William Buchanan, Irwin A. Hammer, Pickens E. Harris, E. C. Lindeman, I. H. Mackinnon, Goodwin Watson, and Raymond H. Wheeler, *Integration: Its Meaning and Application*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc. 1937. Pp. xiv+316. \$2.00.

riculum is determined largely by the extent to which it is planned "on the spot" rather than determined in advance. Seventeen "curriculum implications" of the material presented in the early chapters are listed prior to the evaluation of the curriculums. However, the tenth implication, "Since life is changing and individuals are growing in ability to manage it, a curriculum cannot be fixed in advance, but must be as flexible as intelligent living" (p. 195), seems to assume a position of major importance. This emphasis is the more surprising in view of the rather general recognition on the part of progressive educators of the necessity for more preliminary planning. Obviously no curriculum can be developed without the predetermination of some general ultimate goals or objectives. In fact, such goals are implied in the entire committee report. The significant question seems to be: "How specific should these goals become?" Is there not a valid distinction between the remote objectives accepted by society and the specific objectives perceived and distinguished by the individual pupil in each learning situation? The question to which the committee might profitably have addressed itself concerns the nature and the extent of the planning in advance which is appropriate in an integrated program. An acceptance of the fact that the curriculum composed of subject matter selected and organized by adults and presented by authoritarian methods does not contribute to the integration of the pupil, does not necessarily imply that all goals, content, activities, and means of evaluation must be developed after the children have assembled in the classroom.

The committee rightly identifies with the subject curriculum the following widely accepted educational devices: the intelligence test, the achievement test, departmentalization and the specialized subject-matter preparation of teachers, and the school survey. The implication is that they cannot serve, but rather inhibit, the development of an integrated program. Doubtless many of these practices have been misused, but their relation to integration needs further study. Probably some of them, perhaps in greatly altered form, may be made to serve the experience curriculum and the philosophy of integration quite as effectively as they have formerly been employed in impressing the subject curriculum and its educational philosophy.

It is unfortunate, for example, that the vital questions associated with the preparation which teachers in the experience curriculum will require receive only such general treatment as the following:

In the experience curriculum a true guide brings to the learning situation: (1) an integrating personality, (2) a varied and intelligent interaction with the culture, (3) an understanding of children at the age level of those whom he guides in the learning process, (4) an understanding of the process whereby children become increasingly intelligent in their interactions with the culture, and (5) a capacity, desire, and realization of continued growth. This means that the guide prepares to aid children in their experiencing by improving his own increasingly intelligent living. More than that is not expected. Less than that is not acceptable since it causes him to revert to the position of teacher of predetermined subject matter [pp. 255-56].

Furthermore, the reviewer finds himself unable to accept the logic represented in the statement concerning guidance: "In the experience curriculum guidance is synonymous with learning and is centered in the learning process. This makes every teacher a counselor and eliminates the type of administrative guidance program which grew up with the subject-matter curriculum" (p. 275).

The report indicates that the period from 1919 to 1929 was an era when the scientific movement in education was prosecuted with all too little regard for fundamental philosophical considerations. This fact most thoughtful educators deplore. Reaction from this situation need not obscure the values inherent in the instruments and the techniques developed in the scientific study of education. The report under consideration would have been on sounder ground if it had called for a re-evaluation of these devices in terms of a philosophy which seeks to help each pupil to become increasingly integrated within himself and with his environment.

OLIVER R. FLOYD

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

*Testing the merits of pupil evaluation of their teachers.*—Obtaining valid measures of the teaching efficiency of the individual teacher is obviously a basic procedure in the supervision of instruction. Much research energy has been expended in the endeavor to create dependable instruments for this purpose. While earlier efforts were largely confined to the study of teacher-rating by supervisors, recently the judgments of pupils have been deemed worthy of accumulation and analysis. Toward the improvement of technique for obtaining pupil ratings of their teachers, the scientific study<sup>1</sup> here reviewed was directed.

How reliable are the ratings which junior and senior high school pupils give their teachers? How valid are such ratings? To answer these and related questions, the author constructed a rating instrument and asked the pupils of a junior high school and of a senior high school to rate their teachers. The blank used is evidence of the author's careful study of the essential traits and abilities of the teacher, his full comprehension of sound techniques in rating as revealed by the research in that field, and his appreciation of the simplicity and the clarity necessary in a rating plan to be used by adolescent youth. The method of administering the blank was nicely calculated to obtain opinions which were both thoughtful and candid.

The author tested the reliability of the ratings by correlating the average ratings of chance halves and found coefficients approximating .90. He determined the self-consistency of the raters by computing the multiple correlation between Items 1-10 and 11 of the rating scale, Items 1 to 10 being "items that constitute or accompany (from the pupil standpoint) all-round good teachers

<sup>1</sup> Roy C. Bryan, *Pupil Rating of Secondary School Teachers*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 708. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+96. \$1.60.



and teaching" (p. 37), while Item 11 called for "a rating on all-round teaching ability" (p. 36). The resultant coefficients were .995 for the senior high school pupils and .997 for the junior high school pupils.

The testing of validity was not accomplished to the satisfaction of this reviewer. The author states the question of validity as follows: "Are the ratings of pupils a valid measure of pupil opinion?" (P. 38.) He answers the question by asserting that "for the rating instrument used in this study reliability is synonymous with validity" (p. 38), justifying his position by quoting the following conclusion from T. L. Kelley: "If competent judges appraise Individual A as being as much better than Individual B as Individual B is better than Individual C, then it is so, as there is no higher authority to appeal to" (p. 38). This line of thinking appears to beg the question. For the primary problem of the investigation is to determine whether or not high-school pupils are *competent judges* of teaching, and the question of validity should read: Are the ratings of pupils a valid measure of *teaching efficiency*? While satisfactory criteria of teaching efficiency do not exist, it seems probable that most students of this problem would like to have judgments of the pupil raters compared with those of *adult experts*. The author compared the ratings given by pupils with those given by their principals but in fairness concludes that "the ratings of more than a few administrators (a condition not met in this study) would be required to determine whether or not the ratings of individual administrators are more reliable than the ratings of individual pupils" (p. 60).

The author's analyses of his data show that the rating instrument induced pupils to be discriminating in their judgments of a teacher's various traits. The influence of sex was explored and found to be slight. Intelligence of the pupils was shown to make no significant difference in ratings. The pupils who received high marks showed a slight tendency to rate the teachers higher than did the pupils who received low marks.

While fundamental work remains to be done in determination of the validity of pupil rating of teachers, the study here reviewed significantly expands our certain knowledge of this procedure and gives a feeling of confidence that rating by pupils may be employed as a valuable instrument in supervision.

PERCIVAL W. HUTSON

UNIVERSITY OF PITTSBURGH

*Education adapted to the characteristics of pupils approximately twelve to fifteen years of age.*—Recent books on secondary education have often considered the junior high school as well as the senior and four-year high school. They may also consider the junior college. This breadth of treatment has perhaps tended to prevent adequate examination of the specific problems and issues confronting persons responsible for the program of Grades VII, VIII, and IX. It is the purpose of a recent book<sup>1</sup> on education at the junior high school level to redirect

<sup>1</sup> Ralph W. Pringle, *The Junior High School: A Psychological Approach*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1937. Pp. xii+408. \$3.00.

attention to the problems peculiar to this area and to correct what the author believes to be an oversight on the part of writers treating education for pupils approximately twelve to fifteen years of age.

After reviewing the historical origin of the junior high school, the author examines the physical, the mental, and the social traits of prepubescence and of postpubescence. He finds that the junior high school is responsible for two distinct groups of pupils. The chapters which follow examine the problems of instruction in oral and written expression, reading and literature, mathematics, science, and the remaining subjects in light of the characteristics of preadolescent and postadolescent boys and girls. Concluding chapters deal with extra-curriculum activities and with the "Challenge Implied in Present Trends."

It is the author's contention that rather sharp differences in treatment should be accorded to prepubescent and postpubescent groups because of differences in development. This point of view is illustrated by the following extract:

The prepubescent takes the natural phenomena by which he is surrounded at their face value. His questions are practical rather than scientific.

But with the advent of adolescence comes another kind of curiosity. The adolescent's changed attitude toward nature is one of his most characteristic developments. . . . The youth seeks explanations, and only fundamental principles satisfy him [pp. 199-200].

The reasons for this distinction in treatment the author finds in the nature of prepubescent and postpubescent boys and girls. He relies on the conventional data supplied by certain of the researches in adolescence and on the standard textbooks in the subject. Presentation is not systematic, nor is reference made to much of the newer work going on in this field. For interpretive purposes much reliance is placed on experience and on firsthand, sympathetic contact with boys and girls. The author believes that "the teacher who has lived close to high-school pupils and has entered sympathetically into the life and development of his pupils is not willing to accept as final the results of these many objective tests when the conditions of the testing are such as to shunt off the most characteristic adolescent developments" (p. 51).

A teacher may be an inexperienced teacher and be expected to use the book profitably. Clearly written pages stress, in a sympathetic manner which should be contagious, the characteristics of junior high school pupils and reiterate the necessity of adapting instruction to the varying interests and abilities of the learners.

The more advanced student will find little in the book that is new. The treatment of the origin and the development of the junior high school is brief and conventional. Recent data pertaining to problems of teaching and learning in the various fields are inadequately presented. Many readers will disagree with the author on what he regards as the distinctive feature of the book, namely, that preadolescents and postadolescents are "two distinct groups" and that this fact makes necessary corresponding distinctions in educational methods.

Others will question the definition of the junior high school, which limits it to Grades VII, VIII, and IX and which specifies that it should be a separate administrative unit. Other statements occasionally occur which are open to debate. For example, "all students of our educational history" agree that "both the plan and the subject matter of the eight grades which constituted the elementary school for nearly seventy-five years were indiscriminately transplanted from the medieval Prussian school system" (p. 7).

AUBREY A. DOUGLASS

CLAREMONT COLLEGES  
CLAREMONT, CALIFORNIA

*Personality in view and review.*—Technical studies of personality are commonly concerned with narrow problems. Chave has given perspective and integration to a mass of loosely related data and points of view in a book<sup>1</sup> planned for teachers, teachers in training, child-guidance workers, and parents. The interests of the first two groups are probably met best. The work is somewhat general for persons immersed in practical guidance problems and is too technical and heavily documented to appeal to any except the most intelligent of parents.

The author views personality as constantly in the process of "becoming"—shaped and reshaped by the interaction of child and environment. In the development of this general conception chapters are devoted to the native equipment of the child, heredity, structure and functions of organs, and intellectual and emotional adjustment. Assets and liabilities in the child are discussed in their relation to the expression of the personality. Other chapters illustrate the modifications of the organism which occur through the experiences provided by play situations, homes, schools, neighborhoods, churches, and other social institutions. A chapter on methods of studying personality in children is included. The book closes with a plea and suggestions for better community organization and co-operation in the interest of child development.

The book should serve well as a textbook for an elementary survey of the field of personality. Chapter bibliographies add to the usefulness of the volume for class use. On the whole, the book gives a greater emphasis to the ethical aspects of personality than do most current treatments.

WILLARD C. OLSON

UNIVERSITY OF MICHIGAN

*A drama study course for high schools.*—Russell Thomas has prepared for high-school classes a selection of plays which are representative in the history of the drama.<sup>2</sup> The volume, the reviewer understands, is the outgrowth of a

<sup>1</sup> Ernest J. Chave, *Personality Development in Children*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1937. Pp. xiv+354. \$2.50.

<sup>2</sup> *Plays and the Theater*. Edited by Russell Thomas. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1937. Pp. vi+730. \$1.68.

course originated and taught by Mr. Thomas to a class of high-school Seniors. In publishing such a selection, the compiler had three aims in mind: (1) "to provide plays which young students will enjoy reading and acting," (2) "to present plays which fairly represent the best dramatic achievements of practically all important periods in the history of the theater," (3) "to show the student that the stuff of which drama is made has been the same in all ages" (p. v). In pursuit of these aims Mr. Thomas presents twelve plays, dating from Sophocles to Eugene O'Neill, each reprinted in its entirety. Each historical section is prefaced by an essay on the social, the literary, and the theatrical background of the period represented. The plays are thus available for reading or acting—in either case, with understanding. As a further help toward comprehension in study, the volume closes with a series of expositions of the various elements of the drama, such as character, setting, and theme. All these papers the reviewer assumes to be the considered articulation of class notes. As such, they offer to the teacher of a similar course a base sloughed of nonessentials, close packed with information drawn from many sources. From this base an instructor may proceed with collateral reading of both plays and criticism.

Since teachers interested in choosing a textbook for a drama course will wish to know exactly what is contained in a possible selection, a list of the plays in the present volume will not be out of order. They are: Sophocles' *Antigone*, *Master Pierre Patelin* (anonymous), Shakespeare's *Romeo and Juliet*, Molière's *The Miser*, Sheridan's *The School for Scandal*, Morton's *Box and Cox*, Ibsen's *An Enemy of the People*, Maxwell Anderson's *Elizabeth the Queen*, Rudolf Besier's *The Barretts of Wimpole Street*, Eugene O'Neill's *In the Zone*, George Kelly's *Poor Aubrey*, and Wilbur Daniel Steele's *The Giants' Stair*. It may be mentioned again that each dramatic period is prefaced by an essay on its background. The final papers of the volume are captioned, as a whole, "An Introduction to the Technique and Forms of the Drama" and are entitled individually (1) "What Is Drama?" (2) "The Elements of the Drama (Plot, Character, Setting, Dialogue, Theme)," and (3) "The Forms of Drama (Tragedy, Comedy, Farce, Melodrama, Social Problem Drama)."

Although *Plays and the Theater* has been described as a high-school textbook, the teacher might well be cautious about attempting to use it below the Senior year. While the author's style is an excellent example of modern, simple clarity, distinguished by lack of redundancy and affectation of any kind, it is nevertheless, perhaps because of the selection of subject matter on which it is based, a style which assumes a certain maturity on the part of the reader. Senior classes in high school with their literary and historical background, rather than younger pupils who commonly demand a popularized presentation, will respond to this course. Junior colleges should consider it very seriously.

LOUIS TRAVERS

WASHINGTON JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL  
DULUTH, MINNESOTA

*Rewriting American history in the light of recent experiences.*—Our experiences with our greatest depression have certainly given a real stimulus to the revision of teaching in the field of the social studies. The Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association has given the new and vigorous point of view and the textbook-writers are producing new materials that will assist teachers in revamping their approach. That the new approach can be from a historical point of view and need not be merely a study of contemporary life, in order to be realistic, is adequately demonstrated by the authors of a new textbook in American history.<sup>1</sup>

*The Making of American Civilization* is, in some ways, a rebuilding of the earlier high-school textbook, *History of the United States*, by the same authors. Parts of the earlier book are used in the new volume. The authors have in general, in using the parts of their earlier work, simplified the materials by making a better word choice for the high-school level. The new book, however, has a different approach, a different setting, a different attack, than the earlier book. It seems to be the plan of the authors to write the history of our country in such a way as to lead the student to a realization that all contemporary problems are not entirely new. All the basic problems that we are facing today are handled in this book in the historical periods of the past. The reader, if he is at all interested in the problems of the world of today, will find the parallels and will see that history has continuity.

The book is divided into nine parts, which correspond to the unit organization of other new textbooks. The parts are organized on a general chronological basis, but this basis is far from the blind chronology of the old approach. Part I carries the story of our country from the European background through the Revolution. Part II carries the story from the critical period which followed the Revolution through the first three decades of the nineteenth century. Part III treats the expansion of the republic as a democracy and its territorial growth. Part IV discusses the conflict between industrialism and agrarianism through the Civil War Period. Part V is on the spread of the Industrial Revolution over the continent. Part VI takes the student into the emergence of our country as a world-power. Part VII is a treatment of our attempts to reform our industrial system, down to the Wilson administration. Part VIII carries the story through the World War and through the immediate post-war problems. Part IX treats the period since the great crash and democracy's attempt to rediscover its ideal.

The teacher who is looking for a textbook that treats topics separately from their early emergence to the present will not be satisfied at his first examination of this book. However, this same teacher will find a wealth of material on topics such as economic development; imperialism; the rise of the social conscience; the struggle to make democracy a reality in political, social, and economic life; the place of art in history; and a host of other topics, simply because the authors

<sup>1</sup> Charles A. Beard and Mary R. Beard, *The Making of American Civilization*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1937. Pp. xvi+932+xliv. \$2.20.

have done a splendid piece of work in combining the whole panorama of the American scene. Social, economic, and cultural forces are adequately treated.

The book is written in a vigorous and penetrating style that only a Beard has mastered. At the same time it is clearly understandable. The picture is truly realistic and well balanced. It is a history that attempts to give a realistic scene from the point of view of a citizen of today looking for answers to today's problems and looking at the whole picture of the rise of our country. The answers to the question, "How did we come to be this way?" are there.

The teaching aids, while not outstanding, are good. The "Topics for Discussion" are excellent. The references listed are well chosen but limited in number. The teacher who wants to teach by a good activity program will have to look elsewhere for help.

W. FRANCIS ENGLISH

CARROLLTON HIGH SCHOOL  
CARROLLTON, MISSOURI

### CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

#### GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY AND PRACTICE

- BENNETT, CHARLES ALPHEUS. *History of Manual and Industrial Education, 1870 to 1917*. Peoria, Illinois: Manual Arts Press, 1937. Pp. 566.
- BENNETT, LUTHER JORDAN. *Secretarial Assistance in Teachers Colleges and Normal Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 724. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. viii+86. \$1.60.
- COOK, LLOYD ALLEN. *Community Backgrounds of Education: A Textbook in Educational Sociology*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+398. \$3.00.
- CRAWFORD, CLAUDE C. *How To Teach: A Text for Upper Grade and Secondary Teachers*. Los Angeles, California: Southern California School Book Depository (3636 Beverly Boulevard), 1938. Pp. 512. \$2.50.
- CRAWFORD, CLAUDE C., THORPE, LOUIS P., and ADAMS, FAY. *The Problems of Education: A First Course for the Orientation of Prospective Teachers*. Los Angeles, California: Southern California School Book Depository (3636 Beverly Boulevard), 1938. Pp. 240. \$2.50.
- CYR, FRANK W., BURKE, ARVID J., and MORT, PAUL R. *Paying for Our Public Schools*. Scranton, Pennsylvania: International Textbook Co., 1938. Pp. x+198. \$2.00.
- Educational Yearbook of the International Institute of Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937*. Edited by I. L. Kandel. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. xvi+584. \$3.70.
- GRAY, WILLIAM HENRY. *Psychology of Elementary School Subjects*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xii+460. \$3.25.



- HENDERSON, HELEN RUTH. *A Curriculum Study in a Mountain District*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 732. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. x+190. \$1.85.
- HEYWOOD, KATHERINE. *The Child: Learning and Living*. New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1937. Pp. x+192. \$2.00.
- HOUSMAN, IDA E. *Pension Facts for Teachers: Based on the New Jersey Teachers' Retirement System*. New York: American Book Co., 1938. Pp. xviii+350. \$1.50.
- HOWARD, GLENN W. *A Measurement of the Achievement in Motor Skills of College Men: In the Game Situation of Basketball*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 733. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+110. \$1.60.
- KAWIN, ETHEL. *The Wise Choice of Toys*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1938 (revised). Pp. x+154. \$1.50.
- MILLIGAN, NANCY GERTRUDE. *Relationship of the Professed Philosophy to the Suggested Educational Experiences: A Study in Current Elementary School Curriculum Making*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 729. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+198. \$2.10.
- MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *Social Interpretation: Principles and Practices of Community and Public-School Interpretation*. New York: D. Appleton-Century Co., Inc., 1938. Pp. xiv+486. \$3.00.
- RIDDLE, JOHN INGLE. *The Six-Year Rural High School: A Comparative Study of Small and Large Units in Alabama*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 737. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. vi+102. \$1.60.
- RUSSELL, DAVID HARRIS. *Characteristics of Good and Poor Spellers: A Diagnostic Study*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 727. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 104. \$1.60.
- RUSSELL, JAMES EARL. *Founding Teachers College: Reminiscences of the Dean Emeritus*. The Grace H. Dodge Lectures. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. 106. \$1.40.
- SCHWARZ, JOHN. *Social Study in the Elementary School*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1938. Pp. xx+216. \$2.25.
- VANCE, CATHERINE S. *The Girl Reserve Movement of the Young Women's Christian Association: An Analysis of the Educational Principles and Procedures Used throughout Its History*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 730. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. x+184. \$1.85.
- WEST, JOE YOUNG. *A Technique for Appraising Certain Observable Behavior of Children in Science in Elementary Schools*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 728. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1937. Pp. viii+118. \$1.60.



## BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- BOYER, PHILIP A., CHEYNEY, W. WALKER, and WHITE, HOLMAN. *The Progress Arithmetics*, Book E, pp. 190, \$0.48; *Teacher's Manual To Accompany "The Progress Arithmetics,"* pp. 24. New York: Macmillan Co., 1938.
- CARMAN, HARRY J., KIMMEL, WILLIAM G., and WALKER, MABEL G. *Historic Currents in Changing America*. Philadelphia: John C. Winston Co., 1938. Pp. x+854. \$2.40.
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